REMARKS

Applicants have submitted herewith a substitute specification in compliance with the requirements set forth in 37 C.F.R. §1.58(c) and in M.P.E.P. § 6808.01. The substitute specification contains no new matter.

Applicants have cancelled Claims 1-3 without prejudice to, or disclaimer of, the subject matter contained therein. Applicants maintain that the cancellation of a claim makes no admission as to its patentability and reserve the right to pursue the subject matter of the cancelled claim in this or any other patent application.

Applicants have amended Claim 4 to be in independent form, and have amended Claims 5 and 12 to depend from Claim 4. Claim 13 is amended to replace the term "an" with the term "a." Applicants have amended Claims 4-6 have been amended to remove the phrase "the amino acid sequence of the extracellular domain of the polypeptide" in elements (c) and (d) and replace it with the phrase "amino acids 59-100, or 151-161, or 224-239, or 284-323, or 407-427". Applicants have also removed the phrase "wherein said extracellular domain is amino acids 59-100, or 151-161, or 224-239, or 284-323, or 407-427 of SEQ ID NO:12." New Claims 14-19 have been added. Applicants submit that no new matter was added by the amendments, and that support for the amendments can be found throughout the specification. Support for the amendments to Claim 13 can be found, for example, at paragraph [0229]. Support for new Claims 14-19 can be found, for example, in the claims as originally filed and paragraphs [0336], [0362], [407], and Example 18 starting at paragraph [0529]. Support for the amendments to Claims 4-6 can be found, for example, in Figure 12.

Claims 4-19 are presented for further examination. Applicants respond below to the specific rejections raised by the Examiner in the final Office Action mailed March 22, 2005. For the reasons set forth below, Applicants respectfully traverse.

Specification:

The Examiner has not entered the substitute specification submitted on January 3, 2005. According to the Examiner, Applicant failed to provide a statement that the substitute specification includes no new matter, and failed to provide a marked up copy showing the changes relative to the prior version. The Examiner noted that the specification omitted the

claim for priority. The Examiner has also objected to the specification on the grounds that it contains embedded hyperlinks.

Applicants submit herewith a substitute specification. The specification includes no new matter. As indicated by the appropriate markings, all hyperlinks have been removed from the specification. The specification includes the paragraph in which Applicants assert their claim to priority. Applicants submit that the substitute specification is in compliance with 37 C.F.R. § 1.125, and respectfully request that it be entered accordingly.

Rejection Under 35 U.S.C. §101– Utility

The Examiner has maintained the rejection of Claims 1-8 and 11-13 as not being supported by either a specific and substantial asserted utility or a well-established utility for the reasons set forth in the Office Action mailed October 4, 2004. The Examiner asserts that the data provided in the specification do not support the conclusion that the gene encoding PRO300 is differentially expressed in lung cancer compared to normal lung tissue, or that PRO300 is useful as a diagnostic tool. The Examiner argues that the information regarding the polynucleotide encoding PRO300 is too sparse, and further that there is no information regarding expression levels of the PRO300 polypeptide such that either would be useful as a diagnostic tool. The Examiner also states that since it is not known whether the nucleic acid is involved in tumor suppression or if it is inhibited by tumor progression, one skilled in the art could not use the encoding polynucleotides as a target for treatment or a therapeutic. Further, the Examiner states that absent information regarding what type of lung tumors were analyzed in Example 18, the data are preliminary and do not confer utility on the claimed invention.

The Examiner maintains that the two Grimaldi declarations, the Polakis declaration, and the Ashkenazi declaration are insufficient to overcome the rejections set forth by the Examiner in the October 4, 2004 Office Action.

The Examiner argues that the first Grimaldi declaration is unpersuasive because one skilled in the art would not conclude that a gene whose cDNA levels differ by at least two-fold in lung tumor versus normal lung tissue would be useful as a diagnostic marker for lung cancer. First, according to the Examiner, an increase in DNA copy number does not necessarily correlate with a cancerous state. In support of this line of reasoning, the Examiner cites to Hittleman *et al.*

(2001), Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 952:1-12, for the proposition that "because aneuploid DNA can be found in normal tissue, detection of increased DNA copy number does not necessarily mean that those cells containing the DNA are cancerous." Office Action at 6. According to the Examiner, it is not clear from the data presented in Example 18 whether "PRO300 is amplified in cancerous lung epithelium more than in damaged (non cancerous) lung epithelium." *Id.* Further, the Examiner argues that not all lung tumor tissue would be expected to have the same expression pattern for a given gene, and since the specification fails to indicate what types of lung tumor tissue were used in the Example 18, the data are preliminary and insufficient to establish utility.

The Examiner also rejects the testimony set forth in the second Grimaldi declaration regarding the correlation between gene overexpression and protein overexpression, arguing that "these statements have no basis in fact and appear to be the opinion of the Declarant." Office Action at 7. In addition, the Examiner asserts that "there has been no distinction on the record in general or in the specification as filed between total nucleic acid, which includes chromosomal DNA and mRNA." *Id.* at 8. The Examiner contends that one cannot determine from the data presented whether "the observed 'amplification' of nucleic acid is due to increase in chromosomal copy number, or alternatively due to an increase in transcription rates." *Id.* Citing Pennica *et al.*, the Examiner states that increased DNA copy numbers are not necessarily correlated with increased mRNA levels.

Additionally, the Examiner makes the distinction between Dr. Grimaldi's discussion of the relationship between chromosomal aberrations, mRNA levels and protein overexpression for Her2/Neu, and the claimed invention, noting that unlike Her2/Neu, PRO300 has not been associated with tumor formation or cancer, and that no translocation of the gene encoding PR0300 is known to occur. The Examiner concludes that the data presented in Example 18 are preliminary. The Examiner also rejects Dr. Grimaldi's statement that even if mRNA and protein levels do not correlate, then measurement of gene and protein expression levels enables more accurate tumor classification, "because only the cDNA was measured, because of aneuploidy, because no information is provided on expression levels of the protein, because there is no information on what type of lung tumor tissues were tested, etc." Office Action at 12.

The Examiner maintains that the Polakis declaration is unpersuasive. The Examiner first asserts that "it is important to note that the instant specification provides no information

regarding increased mRNA levels of PRO300 in tumor samples relevant [sic] to normal samples. . .[t]herefore the declaration is insufficient to overcome the rejection of the claims." Office Action at 12. The Examiner then refers to Hu *et al.* (2003), J. Proteome Res. 2:405-412, for the proposition that there is "no evidence of a correlation between [genes differentially expressed in cancer versus normal tissue] and a known role in the disease." Office Action at 12. The Examiner also argues that for genes with low mRNA levels, the mRNA levels are not predictive of protein levels. Citing to Gygi *et al.* the Examiner argues that "message levels are generally not predictive of protein levels for the majority of genes studies [sic] by Gygi *et al.*" *Id.* at 11.

Finally, the Examiner argues that the Ashkenazi declaration is insufficient to overcome the utility rejection. Specifically, the Examiner rejects Dr. Ashkenazi's testimony that simultaneous testing of gene expression and gene product levels enables more accurate tumor classification "because it has not been demonstrated that the protein of the instant invention is differentially expressed in different tumors. If it was, the protein would have a specific and substantial utility." Office Action at 13. The Examiner then states that "[o]verexpression of a gene product in a cancer cell does not necessarily mean that the gene product is involved in the cancer and that targeting the gene product would also be therapeutic." *Id.* at 14. The Examiner reiterates that the data in Example 18 do not provide information on levels of protein expression, and concludes that thus the proposed use is simply a starting point for further research.

Applicants respectfully disagree.

Utility – Legal Standard

According to the Utility Examination Guidelines ("Utility Guidelines"), 66 Fed. Reg. 1092 (2001) an invention complies with the utility requirement of 35 U.S.C. § 101, if it has at least one asserted "specific, substantial, and credible utility" or a "well-established utility."

Under the Utility Guidelines, a utility is "specific" when it is particular to the subject matter claimed. For example, it is generally not enough to state that a nucleic acid is useful as a diagnostic tool without also identifying the condition that is to be diagnosed.

The requirement of "substantial utility" defines a "real world" use, and derives from the Supreme Court's holding in *Brenner v. Manson*, 383 U.S. 519, 534 (1966) stating that "The basic *quid pro quo* contemplated by the Constitution and the Congress for granting a patent monopoly is the benefit derived by the public from an invention with substantial utility." In explaining the

"substantial utility" standard, M.P.E.P. § 2107.01 cautions, however, that Office personnel must be careful not to interpret the phrase "immediate benefit to the public" or similar formulations used in certain court decisions to mean that products or services based on the claimed invention must be "currently available" to the public in order to satisfy the utility requirement. "Rather, *any reasonable use that an applicant has identified for the invention that can be viewed as providing a public benefit should be accepted as sufficient,* at least with regard to defining a 'substantial' utility." (M.P.E.P. § 2107.01, emphasis added).

The mere consideration that further experimentation might be performed to more fully develop the claimed subject matter does not support a finding of lack of utility. M.P.E.P. § 2107.01 III cites *In re Brana*, 51 F.3d 1560, 1566, 34 U.S.P.Q.2d 1436 (Fed. Cir. 1995) in stating that "Usefulness in patent law ... necessarily includes the expectation of further research and development. The stage at which an invention in this field becomes useful is well before it is ready to be administered to humans." Further, "[T]o violate § 101 the claimed device must be totally incapable of achieving a useful result" *Juicy Whip Inc. v. Orange Bang Inc.*, 51 USPQ2d 1700 (Fed. Cir. 1999), *citing Brooktree Corp. v. Advanced Micro Devices, Inc.*, 977 F.2d 1555, 1571 (Fed.Cir.1992).

Indeed, the Guidelines for Examination of Applications for Compliance With the Utility Requirement, set forth in M.P.E.P. § 2107 II(B)(1) gives the following instruction to patent examiners: "If the applicant has asserted that the claimed invention is useful for any particular practical purpose ... and the assertion would be considered credible by a person of ordinary skill in the art, do not impose a rejection based on lack of utility."

Utility need NOT be Proved to a Statistical Certainty – a Reasonable Correlation between the Evidence and the Asserted Utility is Sufficient

An Applicant's assertion of utility creates a presumption of utility that will be sufficient to satisfy the utility requirement of 35 U.S.C. § 101, "unless there is a reason for one skilled in the art to question the objective truth of the statement of utility or its scope." *In re Langer*, 503 F.2d 1380, 1391, 183 USPQ 288, 297 (CCPA 1974). *See, also In re Jolles*, 628 F.2d 1322, 206 USPQ 885 (CCPA 1980); *In re Irons*, 340 F.2d 974, 144 USPQ 351 (1965); *In re Sichert*, 566 F.2d 1154, 1159, 196 USPQ 209, 212-13 (CCPA 1977). Compliance with 35 U.S.C. § 101 is a question of fact. *Raytheon v. Roper*, 724 F.2d 951, 956, 220 USPQ 592, 596 (Fed. Cir. 1983)

cert. denied, 469 US 835 (1984). The evidentiary standard to be used throughout *ex parte* examination in setting forth a rejection is a preponderance of the evidence, or "more likely than not" standard. *In re Oetiker*, 977 F.2d 1443, 1445, 24 USPQ2d 1443, 1444 (Fed. Cir. 1992). This is stated explicitly in the M.P.E.P.:

> [T]he applicant does not have to provide evidence sufficient to establish that an asserted utility is true "beyond a reasonable doubt." **Nor must the applicant provide evidence such that it establishes an asserted utility as a matter of statistical certainty**. Instead, evidence will be sufficient if, considered as a whole, it leads a person of ordinary skill in the art to conclude that the asserted utility is more likely than not true. M.P.E.P. at § 2107.02, part VII (2004) (underline emphasis in original, bold emphasis added, internal citations omitted).

The PTO has the initial burden to offer evidence "that one of ordinary skill in the art would reasonably doubt the asserted utility." *In re Brana*, 51 F.3d 1560, 1566, 34 U.S.P.Q.2d 1436 (Fed. Cir. 1995). Only then does the burden shift to the Applicant to provide rebuttal evidence. *Id.* As stated in the M.P.E.P., such rebuttal evidence does not need to absolutely prove that the asserted utility is real. Rather, the evidence only needs to be reasonably indicative of the asserted utility.

In *Fujikawa v. Wattanasin*, 93 F.3d 1559, 39 U.S.P.Q.2d 1895 (Fed. Cir. 1996), the Court of Appeals for the Federal Circuit upheld a PTO decision that *in vitro* testing of a novel pharmaceutical compound was sufficient to establish practical utility, stating the following rule:

> [T]esting is often required to establish practical utility. But the test results **need not absolutely prove** that the compound is pharmacologically active. All that is required is that the tests be "*reasonably* indicative of the desired [pharmacological] response." In other words, there must be **a sufficient correlation** between the tests and an asserted pharmacological activity so as to convince those skilled in the art, **to a reasonable probability**, that the novel compound will exhibit the asserted pharmacological behavior." *Fujikawa v. Wattanasin*, 93 F.3d 1559, 1564, 39 U.S.P.Q.2d 1895 (Fed. Cir. 1996) (internal citations omitted, bold emphasis added, italics in original).

While the *Fujikawa* case was in the context of utility for pharmaceutical compounds, the principals stated by the Court are applicable in the instant case where the asserted utility is for a therapeutic and diagnostic use – utility does not have to be established to an absolute certainty, rather, the evidence must convince a person of skill in the art "to a reasonable probability." In

addition, the evidence need not be direct, so long as there is a "sufficient correlation" between the tests performed and the asserted utility.

The Court in *Fujikawa* relied in part on its decision in *Cross v. Iizuka*, 753 F.2d 1040, 224 U.S.P.Q. 739 (Fed. Cir. 1985). In *Cross*, the Appellant argued that basic *in vitro* tests conducted in cellular fractions did not establish a practical utility for the claimed compounds. Appellant argued that more sophisticated *in vitro* tests using intact cells, or *in vivo* tests, were necessary to establish a practical utility. The Court in *Cross* rejected this argument, instead favoring the argument of the Appellee:

> [*I*]*n vitro* results...are generally predictive of *in vivo* test results, i.e., there is a **reasonable correlation** therebetween. Were this not so, the testing procedures of the pharmaceutical industry would not be as they are. [Appellee] has not urged, and rightly so, that there is an invariable exact correlation between *in vitro* test results and *in vivo* test results. Rather, [Appellee's] position is that successful *in vitro* testing for a particular pharmacological activity establishes a **significant probability** that *in vivo* testing for this particular pharmacological activity will be successful. *Cross v. Iizuka*, 753 F.2d 1040, 1050, 224 U.S.P.Q. 739 (Fed. Cir. 1985) (emphasis added).

The *Cross* case is very similar to the present case. Like *in vitro* testing in the pharmaceutical industry, those of skill in the field of biotechnology rely on the reasonable correlation that exists between gene expression and protein expression (see below). Were there no reasonable correlation between the two, the techniques that measure gene levels such as microarray analysis, differential display, and quantitative PCR would not be so widely used by those in the art. As in *Cross*, Applicants here do not argue that there is "an invariable exact correlation" between gene expression and protein expression. Instead, Applicants' position detailed below is that a measured change in gene expression in cancer cells establishes a "significant probability" that the expression of the encoded polypeptide in cancer will also be changed based on "a reasonable correlation therebetween."

Taken together, the legal standard for demonstrating utility is a relatively low hurdle. An Applicant need only provide evidence such that it is **more likely than not that a person of skill in the art would be convinced, to a reasonable probability, that the asserted utility is true.** The evidence need not be direct evidence, so long as there is a reasonable correlation between the evidence and the asserted utility. The Applicant **does not need to provide evidence such that it establishes an asserted utility as a matter of statistical certainty.**

Finally, in assessing the credibility of the asserted utility, the M.P.E.P. states that "to overcome the presumption of truth that an assertion of utility by the applicant enjoys" the PTO must establish that it is "more likely than not that one of ordinary skill in the art would doubt (i.e., "question") the truth of the statement of utility." M.P.E.P. § 2107.02 III A. The M.P.E.P. cautions that:

> Rejections under 35 U.S.C. 101 have been **rarely sustained** by federal courts. Generally speaking, **in these rare cases**, the 35 U.S.C. 101 rejection was sustained either because the **applicant ... asserted a utility that could only be true if it violated a scientific principle, such as the second law of thermodynamics, or a law of nature, or was wholly inconsistent with contemporary knowledge in the art**. M.P.E.P. § 2107.02 III B. (underline emphasis in original, bold emphasis added); citing *In re Gazave*, 379 F.2d 973, 978, 154 USPQ 92, 96 (CCPA 1967).

Even assuming that the PTO has met its initial burden to offer evidence that one of ordinary skill in the art would reasonably doubt the truth of the asserted utility, Applicants assert that they have met their burden of providing rebuttal evidence such that it is more likely than not those skilled in the art, to a reasonable probability, would believe that the claimed invention is useful as a diagnostic tool for cancer.

*The Data in Example 18 are Data Regarding Differential mRNA Levels, **not** Gene Amplification*

Applicants begin by clarifying that the data concerning the differential expression of the PRO300 gene presented in Example 18 relate to gene expression, **not** gene amplification. The description of Example 18 makes clear that the results were obtained by quantitative PCR amplification of cDNA libraries. It is well known in the art that cDNA libraries are made from mRNA, and reflect the level of mRNA for a particular gene in the source tissue. Thus, Example 18 is reporting a measure of the *expression* of the PRO300 gene, i.e. mRNA levels, not its *amplification*, i.e. the number of copies of PRO300 in the genome.

Throughout the final Office Action, the Examiner refers to "gene amplification." For example, the Examiner states "it is important to note that the instant specification provides no information regarding increased mRNA levels of PRO300 in tumor samples relevant [sic] to normal samples. Only gene amplification data was presented in Example 18." Office Action at 10. In rejecting Applicant's previous arguments, the Examiner states, "it does not necessarily

follow that an increase in gene copy number results in increased gene expression and increased polypeptide expression." *Id.* at 8-9.

Applicants wish to clarify that whether or not gene amplification leads to increased gene expression is irrelevant to this particular application. Applicants have provided reliable evidence that the PRO300 **mRNA** is differentially expressed in certain tumors. Whether this differential expression is due to changes in gene copy number, transcription rates, a combination of the two, or some other known or unknown cellular mechanism is simply not relevant to Applicants' asserted utility.

Summary of Applicants' Arguments and the PTO's Response

In an attempt to clarify Applicants' argument, Applicants offer a summary of their argument and the disputed issues involved. Applicants assert that the claimed polypeptides have utility as diagnostic tools for cancer, particularly lung cancer. Applicants are not asserting that the claimed polypeptides necessarily provide a definitive diagnosis of lung cancer, but rather that they are useful, alone or in combination with other diagnostic tools to assist in the diagnosis of lung cancers. Applicants' asserted utility rests on the following argument:

1. Applicants have provided reliable evidence that mRNA for the PRO300 polypeptide is expressed at least two-fold higher in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor.

2. Applicants assert that it is well-established in the art that a change in the level of mRNA for a particular protein, e.g. a decrease, generally leads to a corresponding change in the level of the encoded protein, e.g. a decrease;

3. Given Applicants' evidence that the level of mRNA for the PRO300 polypeptide is decreased in lung tumor compared to normal lung tissue, it is likely that the level of PRO300 polypeptide is also decreased in lung tumors and is therefore useful as a diagnostic tool to distinguish lung tumor from normal lung tissue.

Applicants understand the Examiner to be making several arguments in response to Applicants' asserted utility:

1. The Examiner argues that the data provided in Example 18 does not support the conclusion that the gene encoding PRO300 or PRO300 itself is differentially expressed in lung cancer compared to normal tissue or that either is useful as a diagnostic tool;

2. The Examiner argues that different types of lung tumor tissue would not be expected to have the same gene expression pattern, and since the specification does not indicate what types of lung tumor tissue were used in Example 18, the data are insufficient to establish utility;

3. The Examiner argues that because no mutation or translocation of PRO300 has been associated with lung cancer, and because it is not known whether the nucleic acid is involved in tumor suppression or is inhibited by tumor progression, the disclosure is insufficient to meet the utility requirement;

4. The Examiner cites Hittleman *et al.* to support her assertion that because aneuploid DNA can be found in normal tissue, detection of increased DNA copy number does not necessarily correlate with a cancerous state, and relies on Pennica *et al.* as further evidence of the lack of correlation between gene amplification and protein levels;

5. The Examiner cites Hu *et al.* and Gygi *et al.* to support her assertion that the literature cautions against drawing conclusions based on small changes in transcription expression levels between normal and cancerous tissue, and that mRNA levels are not predictive of protein levels.

As detailed below, Applicants submit that the PTO has failed to meet its initial burden to offer evidence "that one of ordinary skill in the art would reasonably doubt the asserted utility." *In re Brana*, 51 F.3d 1560, 1566, 34 U.S.P.Q.2d 1436 (Fed. Cir. 1995). First, the Examiner has failed to offer relevant evidence to support her rejection of the data in Example 18 and the Declaration of Chris Grimaldi in support of these data. Second, the fact that no mutation or translocation of PRO300 has been associated with lung cancers does not prevent its use as a diagnostic tool for the same. Third, Applicants submit that given the well-established correlation between a change in the level of mRNA with a corresponding change in the levels of the encoded protein, the PRO300 protein is likely differentially expressed in lung tumors. This provides utility for PRO300 and related proteins as cancer diagnostic tools. Finally, even if the PTO has met its initial burden, Applicants have submitted enough rebuttal evidence to establish that it is **more likely than not** that a person of skill in the art would be convinced, **to a reasonable probability,** that the asserted utility is true. As stated above, Applicants' evidence need not be direct evidence, so long as there is a reasonable correlation between the evidence and the asserted utility. **The standard is not statistical or absolute certainty.**

Applicants have established that the Gene Encoding the PRO300 Polypeptide is Differentially Expressed in Certain Cancers compared to Normal Tissue

Applicants first address the PTO's argument that the evidence of differential expression of the gene encoding the PRO300 polypeptide lung tumors is insufficient.

The gene expression data in the specification, Example 18, shows that the mRNA associated with protein PRO300 was more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor. Gene expression was analyzed using standard semi-quantitative PCR amplification reactions of cDNA libraries isolated from different human tumor and normal human tissue samples. Identification of the differential expression of the PRO300 polypeptide-encoding gene in lung tumor tissue compared to the corresponding normal lung tissue renders the molecule useful as a diagnostic tool for the determination of the presence or absence of lung tumor. In support, Applicants previously submitted as Exhibit 1 a first Declaration of J. Christopher Grimaldi, an expert in the field of cancer biology. This declaration explains the importance of the data in Example 18, and how differential gene and protein expression studies are used to differentiate between normal and tumor tissue (see Declaration, paragraph 7).

In paragraph 5 of his declaration, Mr. Grimaldi states that the gene expression studies reported in Example 18 of the instant application were made from pooled samples of normal and of tumor tissues. Mr. Grimaldi explains that:

> The DNA libraries used in the gene expression studies were made from pooled samples of normal and of tumor tissues. *Data from pooled samples is more likely to be accurate than data obtained from a sample from a single individual.* That is, the detection of variations in gene expression is likely to represent a more generally relevant condition when pooled samples from normal tissues are compared with pooled samples from tumors in the same tissue type. (Paragraph 5) (emphasis added).

The Examiner argues that "different types of cancer demonstrate different gene expression patterns and the measurement of a single gene would not necessarily be indicative of the presence or absence of cancer." Applicants disagree, and submit that the Examiner is essentially requiring Applicants to show data that the polypeptides can be used to detect or differentiate different types of lung cancer. Such a showing is not necessary for the asserted utilities of the claimed polypeptides, e.g., diagnostic tools to distinguish between tumor tissue and normal tissue. Applicants submit that the Examiner is confusing the distinction between

drawing conclusions based on positive or a negative result, i.e., drawing a conclusion from the detection of a decrease in PRO300 mRNA and/or polypeptide levels, which would be a positive result indicative of lung tumor, versus drawing a conclusion based on the absence of a decrease in PRO300 mRNA and/or polypeptide levels, which Applicants do not discuss. Applicants assert that the differential expression data in Example 18 provide evidence that decreased levels of PRO300 can provide a useful diagnostic tool for lung cancer, i.e. that the PRO300 gene "can be used to differentiate tumor from normal" (Grimaldi declaration, paragraph 7), and maintain that the Examiner's assertion that Applicants have not described what types of lung tumors were assayed in Example 18 does not detract from Applicants' asserted utility.

In paragraphs 6 and 7, Mr. Grimaldi explains that the semi-quantitative analysis employed to generate the data of Example 18 is sufficient to determine if a gene is over- or under-expressed in tumor cells compared to corresponding normal tissue. He states that any visually detectable difference seen between two samples is indicative of at least a two-fold difference in cDNA between the tumor tissue and the counterpart normal tissue. Thus, the results of Example 18 reflect at least a two-fold difference between normal and tumor samples. He also states that the results of the gene expression studies indicate that the genes of interest "can be used to differentiate tumor from normal," thus establishing their reliability. He explains that, contrary to the Examiner's assertions, "The precise levels of gene expression are irrelevant; what matters is that there is a relative difference in expression between normal tissue and tumor tissue." (Paragraph 7). Thus, since it is the relative level of expression between normal tissue and suspected cancerous tissue that is important, the precise level of expression in normal tissue is irrelevant. Likewise, there is no need for quantitative data to compare the level of expression in normal and tumor tissue. As Mr. Grimaldi states, "If a difference is detected, this indicates that the gene and its corresponding polypeptide and antibodies against the polypeptide are useful for diagnostic purposes, to screen samples to differentiate between normal and tumor."

Applicants submit that the declaration of Mr. Grimaldi is based on personal knowledge of the relevant facts at issue. Mr. Grimaldi is an expert in the field and conducted or supervised the experiments at issue. Applicants remind the Examiner that "[o]ffice personnel must accept an opinion from a qualified expert that is based upon relevant facts whose accuracy is not being questioned." PTO Utility Examination Guidelines (2001) (emphasis added). In addition,

declarations relating to issues of fact should not be summarily dismissed as "opinions" without an adequate explanation of how the declaration fails to rebut the Examiner's position. *In re Alton* 76 F.3d 1168 (Fed. Cir. 1996). The Examiner has not supplied any reasons or evidence to question the accuracy of the facts upon which Mr. Grimaldi based his opinion, other than the Examiner's assertions that aneuploid DNA can be found in normal tissue, and that not all tumor tissue would be expected to have the same expression pattern for a given gene. See, Office Action at 6-7. As discussed above, evidence relating to DNA copy number is irrelevant to the issue at hand, as is an assertion that Applicants have not detailed the types of lung tumors tested. Mr. Grimaldi has personal knowledge of the relevant facts, has based his opinion on those facts, and the Examiner has offered no reason or evidence to reject either the underlying facts or his opinion. Applicants submit that for the reasons stated above, the Examiner's arguments are unpersuasive, and the Examiner should accept Mr. Grimaldi's opinion with regard to his statement that "any visually detectable difference seen between two samples is indicative of at least a two-fold difference in cDNA between the tumor tissue and the counterpart normal tissue" and that the genes of interest "can be used to differentiate tumor from normal." Together, these statements establish that there is at least a two-fold difference in expression, and that the results are reliable enough that they can be used to distinguish tumor from normal tissue. Finally, Applicants submit that whether this differential expression is due to an increase in chromosomal copy number or increased transcription rates is not relevant to whether the difference in expression can be used to distinguish tumor from normal tissue.

In conclusion, Applicants submit that the evidence reported in Example 18, combined with the first Grimaldi Declaration, establish that there is at least a two-fold difference in PRO300 cDNA between lung tumor tissue and normal lung tissue. Therefore, it follows that expression levels of the PRO300 gene can be used to distinguish lung tumor tissue from normal lung tissue. The Examiner has not offered any significant arguments or evidence to the contrary.

As Applicants explain below, it is more likely than not that the PRO300 polypeptide is also differentially expressed in lung tumor, and can therefore be used to distinguish the same tumor tissue from normal normal lung counterparts. This provides utility for the claimed polypeptides.

Applicants have established that the Accepted Understanding in the Art is that there is a Direct Correlation between mRNA Levels and the Level of Expression of the Encoded Protein

Applicants next turn to the second portion of their argument in support of their asserted utility – that it is well-established in the art that a change in the level of mRNA for a particular protein, generally leads to a corresponding change in the level of the encoded protein; given Applicants' evidence of differential expression of the mRNA for the PRO300 polypeptide in lung, it is more likely than not that the PRO300 polypeptide is differentially expressed; and proteins differentially expressed in lung tumor have utility as diagnostic tools.

In support of the assertion that changes in mRNA are positively correlated to changes in protein levels, Applicants previously submitted a copy of a second Declaration by J. Christopher Grimaldi, an expert in the field of cancer biology (previously attached as Exhibit 2). As stated in paragraph 5 of the declaration, "Those who work in this field are well aware that in the vast majority of cases, when a gene is over-expressed...the gene product or polypeptide will also be over-expressed.... This same principal applies to gene under-expression." Further, "the detection of increased mRNA expression is expected to result in increased polypeptide expression, and the detection of decreased mRNA expression is expected to result in decreased polypeptide expression. The detection of increased or decreased polypeptide expression can be used for cancer diagnosis and treatment." The references cited in the declaration and submitted herewith support this statement.

Applicants also previously submitted a copy of the declaration of Paul Polakis, Ph.D. (previously attached as Exhibit 3), an expert in the field of cancer biology. As stated in paragraph 6 of his declaration:

> Based on my own experience accumulated in more than 20 years of research, including the data discussed in paragraphs 4 and 5 above [showing a positive correlation between mRNA levels and encoded protein levels in the vast majority of cases] and my knowledge of the relevant scientific literature, it is my considered scientific opinion that for human genes, an increased level of mRNA in a tumor cell relative to a normal cell typically correlates to a similar increase in abundance of the encoded protein in the tumor cell relative to the normal cell. In fact, *it remains a central dogma in molecular biology that increased mRNA levels are predictive of corresponding increased levels of the encoded protein.* (Emphasis added).

Dr. Polakis acknowledges that there are published cases where such a correlation does not exist, but states that it is his opinion, based on over 20 years of scientific research, that "such reports are exceptions to the commonly understood general rule that increased mRNA levels are predictive of corresponding increased levels of the encoded protein." (Polakis Declaration, paragraph 6).

The statements of Grimaldi and Polakis are supported by the teachings in Molecular Biology of the Cell, a leading textbook in the field (Bruce Alberts, *et al.*, Molecular Biology of the Cell (3rd ed. 1994) (submitted herewith as Exhibit 1) and (4th ed. 2002) (previously submitted as Exhibit 4, hereinafter "Alberts, 4th Ed.")). Figure 9-2 of Exhibit 1 shows the steps at which eukaryotic gene expression can be controlled. The first step depicted is transcriptional control. Exhibit 1 provides that "[f]or most genes transcriptional controls are paramount. This makes sense because, of all the possible control points illustrated in Figure 9-2, only transcriptional control ensures that no superfluous intermediates are synthesized." Exhibit 1 at 403 (emphasis added). In addition, the text states that "Although controls on the initiation of gene transcription are the predominant form of regulation for most genes, other controls can act later in the pathway from RNA to protein to modulate the amount of gene product that is made." Exhibit 1 at 453 (emphasis added). Thus, as established in Exhibit 1, the predominant mechanism for regulating the amount of protein produced is by regulating transcription initiation.

In Alberts, 4th Ed., Figure 6-3 on page 302 illustrates the basic principle that there is a correlation between increased gene expression and increased protein expression. The accompanying text states that "a cell can change (or regulate) the expression of each of its genes according to the needs of the moment – *most obviously by controlling the production of its mRNA*." Alberts, 4th Ed. at 302 (emphasis added). Similarly, Figure 6-90 on page 364 of Alberts, 4th Ed. illustrates the path from gene to protein. The accompanying text states that while potentially each step can be regulated by the cell, "the initiation of transcription is the most common point for a cell to regulate the expression of each of its genes." Alberts, 4th Ed. at 364 (emphasis added). This point is repeated on page 379, where the authors state that of all the possible points for regulating protein expression, "[f]or most genes transcriptional controls are paramount." Alberts, 4th Ed. at 379 (emphasis added).

Further support for Applicants' position can be found in the textbook, Genes VI, (Benjamin Lewin, Genes VI (1997)) (submitted herewith as Exhibit 2) which states "having acknowledged that control of gene expression can occur at multiple stages, and that production of RNA cannot inevitably be equated with production of protein, it is clear that the overwhelming majority of regulatory events occur at the initiation of transcription." *Genes VI* at 847-848 (emphasis added).

Additional support is also found in Zhigang *et al.*, World Journal of Surgical Oncology 2:13, 2004, submitted herewith as Exhibit 3. Zhigang studied the expression of prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) protein and mRNA to validate it as a potential molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of human prostate cancer. The data showed "a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA expression" Exhibit 3 at 4. Of the samples tested, 81 out of 87 showed a high degree of correlation between mRNA expression and protein expression. The authors conclude that "it is demonstrated that PSCA protein and mRNA overexpressed in human prostate cancer, and that the increased protein level of PSCA was resulted from the upregulated transcription of its mRNA." Exhibit 3 at 6. Even though the correlation between mRNA expression and protein expression occurred in 93% of the samples tested, not 100%, the authors state that "PSCA may be a promising molecular marker for the clinical prognosis of human Pca and a valuable target for diagnosis and therapy of this tumor." Exhibit 3 at 7.

Further, Meric *et al.*, Molecular Cancer Therapeutics, vol. 1, 971-979 (2002), submitted herewith as Exhibit 4, states the following:

> The **fundamental principle** of molecular therapeutics in cancer is to exploit the differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells...[M]ost efforts have concentrated on identifying differences in gene expression at the level of mRNA, which can be attributable to either DNA amplification or to differences in transcription. Meric *et al.* at 971 (emphasis added).

Those of skill in the art would not be focusing on differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells if there were no correlation between gene expression and protein expression.

Together, the declarations of Grimaldi and Polakis, the accompanying references, and the excerpts and references provided above all establish that the accepted understanding in the art is

that there is a reasonable correlation between changes in gene expression and the level of the encoded protein.

In response to the second Grimaldi Declaration and the Polakis Declaration, the Examiner makes three arguments. First, the Examiner states that unlike Her2/Neu and t(5;14) discussed in the second Grimaldi declaration, the PRO300 gene has not been associated with tumor formation, and no translocation of PRO300 is known to occur. The Examiner concludes that in the absence of any of the above information, the disclosure is insufficient to meet the utility requirement. Second, the Examiner maintains that "one cannot determine from the data in the specification whether the observed 'amplification' of nucleic acid is due to increase in chromosomal copy number, or alternatively due to an increase in transcription rates." Office Action at 8. Finally, the Examiner cites to Pennica, Hu, and Gygi for the in support of the PTO's positions that increased DNA copy number does not necessarily correlate with increased gene product level, that there is no correlation between differential mRNA expression levels and a known role in cancer, and that transcript levels provide little predictive value with respect to levels of protein expression. Applicants address each argument in turn.

Applicants submit that a lack of known role for PRO300 in cancer does not prevent its use as a diagnostic tool for cancer. The fact that there is no known translocation or mutation of PRO300 is irrelevant to whether its differential expression can be used to assist in diagnosis of cancer – one does not need to know why PRO300 is differentially expressed, or what the consequence of the differential expression is, in order to exploit the differential expression to distinguish tumor from normal tissue. In fact the Revised Interim Utility Guidelines promulgated by the PTO recognize that proteins which are differentially expressed in cancer have utility. (*See* the caveat in Example 12 which state that the utility requirement is satisfied where a protein is expressed in melanoma cells but not on normal skin and antibodies against the protein can be used to diagnose cancer.) In addition, while Applicants appreciate that actions taken in other applications are not binding on the PTO with respect to the present application, Applicants note that the PTO has issued several patents claiming differentially expressed polypeptides. (*See, e.g.,* U.S. Patent No. 6,414,117 and U.S. Patent No. 6,124,433, attached hereto as Exhibits 5 and 6.)

In response to the Examiner's second argument, Applicants reiterate that the data in Example 18 are gene <u>expression</u> data, not gene amplification data. The specification and the first

Grimaldi Declaration make clear that Example 18 used semi-quantitative PCR of cDNA libraries, and disclose differential PRO300 gene expression, not gene amplification. As discussed above, the Examiner cites Pennica *et al.* for support of the argument that gene amplification does not necessarily lead to increased gene expression. This reference is irrelevant to the instant application which reports differential gene expression, not gene amplification. Therefore, the reference and the Examiner's arguments regarding gene amplification do not support the Examiner's challenge of the sufficiency of the Example 18 data, or the first Grimaldi Declaration. Likewise, the Examiner's reliance on Hittleman *et al.* is equally ineffective to cast any doubt on Applicants' asserted utilities and evidence in support thereof. As with Pennica *et al.*, Hittleman *et al.* relates to aneuploidy and DNA copy number, and is simply irrelevant to the gene expression data presented in Example 18. As such, neither Pennica *et al.* or Hittleman *et al.* cast doubt on Applicants' asserted utilities.

In further support of her rejection of Applicants' asserted utilities and testimony, the Examiner cites Hu *et al.* (2003, *J. Proteome Research*, 2: 405-412) for the proposition that "the literature cautions researchers from drawing conclusions based on small changes in transcript expression levels between normal and cancerous tissue." Office Action at 10. Applicants submit that Hu is uninformative regarding the correlation between gene expression level and protein levels. In Hu, the researchers used an automated literature-mining tool to summarize and estimate the relative strengths of all human gene-disease relationships published on Medline. They then generated a microarray expression dataset comparing breast cancer and normal breast tissue. Using their data-mining tool, they looked for a correlation between the strength of the literature association between the gene and breast cancer, and the magnitude of the difference in expression level. They report that for genes displaying a 5-fold change or less in tumors compared to normal, there was no evidence of a correlation between altered gene expression and a *known* role in the disease. *See* Hu at 411. However, among genes with a 10-fold or more change in expression level, there was a strong correlation between expression level and a *published* role in the disease. *Id.* at 412. Importantly, Hu reports that the observed correlation was only found among estrogen receptor-positive tumors, not ER-negative tumors. *Id.*

The general findings of Hu are not surprising – one would expect that genes that have the greatest change in expression in a disease would be the first targets of research, and therefore

have the strongest *known* relationship to the disease as measured by the number of reports of a connection in the literature. But this does not mean that genes, and their corresponding proteins, with a lower level of change in expression are not important or cannot be used as molecular markers of the disease. This is demonstrated by the fact that ER-negative tumors did not show a correlation. The correlation reported in Hu only indicates that the greater the change in expression level, the more likely it is that there is a *published* or *known* role for the gene in the disease, as found by their automated literature-mining software. Nowhere in Hu does it say that a lack of correlation in their study means that the genes, and their corresponding proteins, with a less than five-fold change in level of expression in cancer cannot serve as a molecular marker of cancer. Genes with lower levels of change in expression may or may not be the most important genes in causing the disease, but the genes and their corresponding proteins can still show a consistent and measurable change in expression. While such genes and polypeptides may or may not be good targets for further research, they can nonetheless be used as diagnostic tools. Thus, Hu does not refute the Applicants' assertion that the PRO300 gene and its corresponding polypeptide can be used as a cancer diagnostic tool because they are differentially expressed in melanoma relative to normal skin tissue.

Finally, the Examiner cites Gygi *et al.* for the proposition that "transcript levels provide little predictive value with respect to the extent of protein expression," and thus one skilled in the art would doubt the principle that mRNA levels and protein levels correlate. Office Action at 11. Although Gygi states that "there was a general trend of increased protein levels resulting from increased mRNA levels," (Gygi, p. 1726), the Examiner argues that the correlation observed in Gygi "was highly biased by a small number of genes with very large protein and message levels." Office Action at 11. Applicants note that Gygi states that the high degree of variability seen at low levels of mRNA is due to the fact that "the magnitude of the error in the measurement of mRNA levels is inversely proportional to the mRNA levels." Gygi, p. 1727. Applicants also note that Gygi states that the correlation between mRNA and protein levels is especially strong for highly expressed mRNAs. Gygi, p. 1726. Considering that Example 18 of the specification shows over-expression of PRO300 mRNA in normal lung, Gygi actually provides strong evidence in support of a general correlation between mRNA and protein levels, and thus the utility of the claimed PRO300 polypeptides.

In view of the above, Applicants submit that the references cited by the Examiner do not cast doubt on Applicants' asserted utilities or the testimony of Dr. Grimaldi and Dr. Polakis. To the contrary, the cited references support Applicants' position that more likely than not, one skilled in the art would not doubt Applicants' asserted utility.

The Arguments made by the Examiner are Not Sufficient to satisfy the PTO's Initial Burden of Offering Evidence "that one of ordinary skill in the art would reasonably doubt the asserted utility"

As stated above, an Applicant's assertion of utility creates a presumption of utility that will be sufficient to satisfy the utility requirement of 35 U.S.C. § 101, "unless there is a reason for one skilled in the art to question the objective truth of the statement of utility or its scope." *In re Langer*, 503 F.2d 1380, 1391, 183 USPQ 288, 297 (CCPA 1974). The evidentiary standard to be used throughout *ex parte* examination in setting forth a rejection is a preponderance of the evidence, or "more likely than not" standard. *In re Oetiker*, 977 F.2d 1443, 1445, 24 USPQ2d 1443, 1444 (Fed. Cir. 1992). This is stated explicitly in the M.P.E.P.:

> [T]he applicant does not have to provide evidence sufficient to establish that an asserted utility is true "beyond a reasonable doubt." **Nor must the applicant provide evidence such that it establishes an asserted utility as a matter of statistical certainty**. Instead, evidence will be sufficient if, considered as a whole, it leads a person of ordinary skill in the art to conclude that the asserted utility is more likely than not. M.P.E.P. at § 2107.02, part VII (2004) (underline emphasis in original, bold emphasis added, internal citations omitted).

The PTO has the initial burden to offer evidence "that one of ordinary skill in the art would reasonably doubt the asserted utility." *In re Brana*, 51 F.3d 1560, 1566, 34 U.S.P.Q.2d 1436 (Fed. Cir. 1995). Only then does the burden shift to the Applicant to provide rebuttal evidence. *Id.* As stated in the M.P.E.P., such rebuttal evidence does not need to absolutely prove that the asserted utility is real. Rather, the evidence only needs to be reasonably indicative of the asserted utility.

Considering the totality of the evidence of record, Applicants submit that the PTO has not met its initial burden of overcoming the presumption that the asserted utility is sufficient to satisfy the utility requirement. The evidence proffered by the Examiner to counter Applicants' own evidence is either irrelevant to the issue at hand concerning the data in Example 18, (e.g.,

Pennica *et al.*, Hittleman *et al.*), or fails to establish that one skilled in the art would more likely than not doubt Applicants' asserted utility (e.g., Hu *et al.* and Gygi *et al.*). Further, even if the PTO has met its initial burden, the Applicants' supporting rebuttal evidence is sufficient to establish that one of skill in the art would be more likely than not to believe that the claimed polypeptides can be used as diagnostic tools for cancer, particularly lung cancer. Certainly, the Examiner has not provided evidence that establishes that Applicants' asserted utilities are "wholly inconsistent with the contemporary knowledge in the art." MPEP § 2107.02 III B.

Conclusion

The Examiner has asserted several arguments for why there is a lack of a substantial utility: (1) that the data provided in Example 18 does not support the conclusion that the gene encoding PRO300 or PRO300 itself is differentially expressed in lung cancer compared to normal tissue; (2) that different types of lung tumor tissue would not be expected to have the same gene expression pattern; (3) that no mutation or translocation of PRO300 has been associated with lung cancer; (4) that aneuploid DNA can be found in normal tissue, and detection of increased DNA copy number does not necessarily correlate with a cancerous state; and (5) that Applicants have not provided evidentiary support for the proposition that increased mRNA levels are predictive of corresponding increased levels of the encoded polypeptide. For the above reasons, the Examiner has maintained the position that the claimed polypeptides cannot be used as cancer diagnostic or therapeutic tools. Applicants have addressed each of these arguments in turn.

First, the Applicants provided a first Declaration of Chris Grimaldi stating that given the at least two-fold difference in expression levels, the disclosed nucleic acids and corresponding polypeptides have utility as cancer diagnostic tools. Applicants have also established that the asserted utilities for the claimed polypeptides exist regardless of the cause or consequences of the differential expression. Next, Applicants have demonstrated that the possibility that PRO300 is not differentially expressed in all types of tumor does not detract from Applicants' asserted utility.

Finally, Applicants submit that the second Grimaldi Declaration and Polakis Declaration, the accompanying references, as well as the excerpts and references cited above, demonstrate that it is well-established in the art that a change in mRNA levels generally correlates to a

corresponding change in the encoded protein levels. The Examiner has not offered any substantial reasoning or evidence to the contrary – they Examiner has cited to references that either do not relate to mRNA and protein expression levels, or that simply do not establish that one skilled in the art would doubt Applicants' asserted utility.

Given the totality of the evidence provided, Applicants submit that they have established a substantial, specific, and credible utility for the claimed nucleic acids as diagnostic tools. According to the PTO Utility Examination Guidelines (2001), irrefutable proof of a claimed utility is not required. Rather, a specific, substantial, and credible utility requires only a "reasonable" confirmation of a real world context of use. Applicants remind the PTO that:

> A small degree of utility is sufficient . . . The claimed invention must only be capable of performing some beneficial function . . . An invention does not lack utility merely because the particular embodiment disclosed in the patent lacks perfection or performs crudely . . . A commercially successful product is not required . . . Nor is it essential that the invention accomplish all its intended functions . . . or operate under all conditions . . . partial success being sufficient to demonstrate patentable utility . . . In short, **the defense of non-utility cannot be sustained without proof of total incapacity**. If an invention is only partially successful in achieving a useful result, a rejection of the claimed invention as a whole based on a lack of utility is not appropriate. M.P.E.P. at 2107.01 (underline emphasis in original, bold emphasis added, citations omitted).

Applicants submit that they have established that it is more likely than not that one of skill in the art would reasonably accept the utility for the claimed polypeptides as diagnostic tools as set forth in the specification. In view of the above, Applicants respectfully request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the utility rejection under 35 U.S.C. §101.

Rejection Under 35 U.S.C. § 112, First Paragraph – Enablement

The Examiner has rejected Claims 1-8 and 11-13 under 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph, as not being enabled since the claimed invention allegedly lacks utility. According to the Examiner, significant further experimentation would be necessary to be able to use the claimed polypeptide because no function has been determined for the same.

Applicants submit that in the discussion of the 35 U.S.C. § 101 rejection above, Applicants have established a substantial, specific, and credible utility for the claimed nucleic

acids. Applicants therefore request that the Examiner reconsider and withdraw the enablement rejection to the extent that it is based on a lack of utility for the claimed polypeptides.

Rejection Under 35 U.S.C. §112, First Paragraph – Written Description

The Examiner has maintained the rejection of Claims 1-8 and 11-13 under 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph, as lacking adequate written description. The Examiner objected to the recitation of several portions of PRO300 as the extracellular domain. Specifically, the Examiner states that there is no information as to how the protein is inserted into the membrane (i.e., which orientation), it would not be obvious which domains are intracellular and extracellular from the disclosure. The Examiner also asserts that the specification does not teach expression levels of PRO300 or the encoding nucleic acid, and therefore concludes that the specification cannot provide a written description of polypeptides or nucleic acids that are differentially expressed. Finally, the Examiner asserts that the specification fails to provide written description for the claimed variants of SEQ ID NO: 12.

Applicants have amended the claims to remove reference to the phrase "extracellular domain," thereby obviating the Examiner's rejection insofar as it relates to the recitation of the extracellular domain of SEQ ID NO: 12. Applicants address the Examiner's other grounds for rejection below.

The Legal Standard for Written Description

The well-established test for sufficiency of support under the written description requirement of 35 U.S.C. §112, first paragraph is whether the disclosure "reasonably conveys to artisan that the inventor had possession at that time of the later claimed subject matter." *In re* Kaslow, 707 F.2d 1366, 1375, 2121 USPQ 1089, 1096 (Fed. Cir. 1983); see also *Vas-Cath, Inc. v Mahurkar,* 935 F.2d at 1563, 19 USPQ2d at 1116 (Fed. Cir. 1991). The adequacy of written description support is a factual issue and is to be determined on a case-by-case basis. See e.g., *Vas-Cath, Inc. v. Mahurkar,* 935 F.2d at 1563, 19 USPQ2d at 1116 (Fed. Cir. 1991). The factual determination in a written description analysis depends on the nature of the invention and the amount of knowledge imparted to those skilled in the art by the disclosure. *Union Oil v. Atlantic Richfield Co.,* 208 F.3d 989, 996 (Fed. Cir. 2000).

The Current Invention is Adequately Described

As noted above, whether the Applicants were in possession of the invention as of the effective filing date of an application is a factual determination, reached by the consideration of a number of factors, including the level of knowledge and skill in the art, and the teaching provided by the specification. The inventor is not required to describe every single detail of his/her invention. An Applicant's disclosure obligation varies according to the art to which the invention pertains. The present invention pertains to the field of recombinant DNA/protein technology. It is well-established that the level of skill in this field is very high since a representative person of skill is generally a Ph.D. scientist with several years of experience. Accordingly, the teaching imparted in the specification must be evaluated through he eyes of a highly skilled artisan as of the date the invention was made.

Turning to the Examiner's rejection of polypeptide variants of PRO300, as amended, the pending claims are related to isolated polypeptides having at least 95% or 99% amino acid sequence identity to several polypeptides related to SEQ ID NO:12, and satisfy the limitation "wherein said isolated polypeptide is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor, or wherein said isolated polypeptide is encoded by a polynucleotide that is more highly expressed in normal lung tissue compared to lung tumor" or "wherein said isolated polypeptide or a fragment thereof can be used to generate an antibody which can be used to specifically detect the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:12 in lung tissue samples."

Applicants maintain that there is no substantial variation within the species which fall within the scope of the amended claims, which require at least 95% or 99% amino acid sequence identity to the disclosed sequences related to SEQ ID NO:12. Applicants note that the pending claims are analogous to the claims discussed in Example 14 of the written description training materials. In Example 14, the written description requirement was found to be satisfied for claims relating to polypeptides having 95% homology to a particular sequence and possessing a particular catalytic activity, even though the applicant had not made any variants. Similarly, the pending claims also have very high sequence homology to the disclosed sequences and must share the same expression pattern in certain tumors, or share an epitope sufficient to generate antibodies which specifically detect the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:12 in lung tissue samples.

In Example 14, the procedures for making variants were known in the art and the disclosure taught how to test for the claimed catalytic activity. Similarly, in the instant application, it is well known in the art how to make polypeptides with at least 95% amino acid sequence identity to the disclosed sequences. In addition, the specification discloses how to test to determine if the polypeptide or encoding nucleic acid is differentially expressed in lung tumors, and how to make antibodies which specifically detect the polypeptide of SEQ ID NO:12 in lung tissue samples. Like Example 14, the genus of polypeptides that have at least 95% or 99% amino acid sequence identity to the disclosed sequences will not have substantial variation.

Furthermore, while Applicants appreciate that actions taken by the PTO in other applications are not binding with respect to the examination of the present application, Applicants note that the PTO has issued many patents containing claims to variant nucleic acids or variant proteins where the application did not actually make such nucleic acids or proteins. Representative patents include U.S. Patent No: 6,737,522, U.S. Patent No. 6,395,306, U.S. Patent No. 6,025,156, U.S. Patent No. 6,645,499, U.S. Patent No. 6,498,235, and U.S. Patent No. 6,730,502 which are attached hereto as Exhibits 7-12.

In conclusion, Applicants submit that they have satisfied the written description requirement for the pending claims based on the actual reduction to practice of SEQ ID NO:12, by specifying a high level of amino acid sequence identity, by describing how to test for differential expression of the polypeptide and encoding nucleic acid, and by describing hot to make antibodies to the disclosed sequence, all of which result in a lack of substantial variability in the species falling within the scope to the instant claims. Applicants submit that this disclosure would allow on skill in the art to "recognize that the applicant was in possession of the necessary common attributes or features of the elements possessed by the members of the genus." Hence, Applicants respectfully request that the PTO reconsider and withdraw the written description rejection under 35 U.S.C. §112.

Rejection Under 35 U.S.C. § 102(b) – Anticipation

The Examiner has maintained the rejection of Claims 1-8 and 11-13 as being anticipated by WO 01/16318 to Eaton et al., to which Applicants claim priority. According to the Examiner, the claimed invention does not fulfill the requirements of 35 U.S.C. § 112, and thus Applicants

are not entitled to the benefit of WO 01/16318, and cites the same against Applicants' present application.

Under 35 U.S.C. § 120, an applicant is entitled to the benefit of the filing date of an earlier filed application that discloses the same invention in the manner provided by 35 U.S.C. § 112, first paragraph, provided the applicant properly claims priority to the earlier application. In a preliminary amendment filed on September 3, 2002, Applicants made specific reference to WO 01/16318, claiming priority thereto. WO 01/16318 contains the same disclosure relating to PRO300 and its utilities as the instant application, including the data in Example 18. For the same reasons detailed above in the Remarks addressed to the rejections under 35 U.S.C. § 101 and 112 in the instant response, Applicants submit that the WO 01/16318 is enabling for and adequately describes the claimed invention. Therefore, because Applicants have properly claimed priority to WO 01/16318, and because WO 01/16318 satisfies the requirements of 35 U.S.C. § 112, Applicants are fully entitled to the benefit of the filing date of WO 01/16318. Applicants respectfully request that the Examiner reconsider and withdraw the rejection under 35 U.S.C. § 102(b).

CONCLUSION

In view of the above amendments and remarks, Applicants respectfully maintain that the claims are patentable and request that they be passed to issue. Applicants invite the Examiner to call the undersigned if any remaining issues may be resolved by telephone.

Please charge any additional fees, including any fees for additional extension of time, or credit overpayment to Deposit Account No. 11-1410.

Respectfully submitted,

KNOBBE, MARTENS, OLSON & BEAR, LLP

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EXHIBIT 1

MOLECULAR BIOLOGY OF THE CELL

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Front cover: The photograph shows a rat nerve cell in culture. It is labeled (*yellow*) with a fluorescent antibody that stains its cell body and dendritic processes. Nerve terminals (*green*) from other neurons (not visible), which have made synapses on the cell, are labeled with a different antibody. (Courtesy of Olaf Mundigl and Pietro de Camilli.)

Dedication page: Gavin Borden, late president of Garland Publishing, weathered in during his mid-1980s climb near Mount McKinley with MBoC author Bruce Alberts and famous mountaineer guide Mugs Stump (1940–1992).

Back cover: The authors, in alphabetical order, crossing Abbey Road in London on their way to lunch. Much of this third edition was written in a house just around the corner. (Photograph by Richard Olivier.)

extracts. If these minor cell proteins differ among cells to the same extent as the more abundant proteins, as is commonly assumed, only a small number of protein differences (perhaps several hundred) suffice to create very large differences in cell morphology and behavior.

A Cell Can Change the Expression of Its Genes in Response to External Signals [3]

Most of the specialized cells in a multicellular organism are capable of altering their patterns of gene expression in response to extracellular cues. If a liver cell is exposed to a glucocorticoid hormone, for example, the production of several specific proteins is dramatically increased. Glucocorticoids are released during periods of starvation or intense exercise and signal the liver to increase the production of glucose from amino acids and other small molecules; the set of proteins whose production is induced includes enzymes such as tyrosine aminotransferase, which helps to convert tyrosine to glucose. When the hormone is no longer present, the production of these proteins drops to its normal level.

Other cell types respond to glucocorticoids in different ways. In fat cells, for example, the production of tyrosine aminotransferase is reduced, while some other cell types do not respond to glucocorticoids at all. These examples illustrate a general feature of cell specialization—different cell types often respond in different ways to the same extracellular signal. Underlying this specialization are features that do not change, which give each cell type its permanently distinctive character. These features reflect the persistent expression of different sets of genes.

Gene Expression Can Be Regulated at Many of the Steps in the Pathway from DNA to RNA to Protein [4]

If differences between the various cell types of an organism depend on the particular genes that the cells express, at what level is the control of gene expression exercised? There are many steps in the pathway leading from DNA to protein, and all of them can in principle be regulated. Thus a cell can control the proteins it makes by (1) controlling when and how often a given gene is transcribed (**transcriptional control**), (2) controlling how the primary RNA transcript is spliced or otherwise processed (**RNA processing control**), (3) selecting which completed mRNAs in the cell nucleus are exported to the cytoplasm (**RNA transport control**), (4) selecting which mRNAs in the cytoplasm are translated by ribosomes (**translational control**), (5) selectively destabilizing certain mRNA molecules in the cytoplasm (**mRNA degradation control**), or (6) selectively activating, inactivating, or compartmentalizing specific protein molecules after they have been made (**protein activity control**) (Figure 9–2).

For most genes transcriptional controls are paramount. This makes sense because, of all the possible control points illustrated in Figure 9–2, only transcriptional control ensures that no superfluous intermediates are synthesized. In the

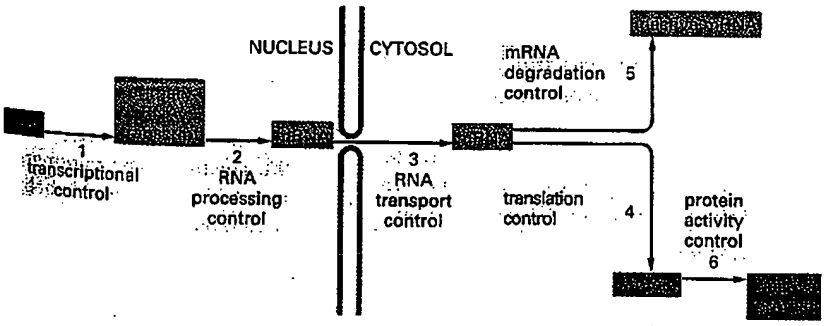

Figure 9–2 Six steps at which eucaryote gene expression can be controlled. Only controls that operate at steps 1 through 5 are discussed in this chapter. The regulation of protein activity (step 6) is discussed in Chapter 5; this includes reversible activation or inactivation by protein phosphorylation as well as irreversible inactivation by proteolytic degradation.

following sections we discuss the DNA and protein components that regulate the initiation of gene transcription. We return at the end of the chapter to the other ways of regulating gene expression.

Summary

The genome of a cell contains in its DNA sequence the information to make many thousands of different protein and RNA molecules. A cell typically expresses only a fraction of its genes, and the different types of cells in multicellular organisms arise because different sets of genes are expressed. Moreover, cells can change the pattern of genes they express in response to changes in their environment, such as signals from other cells. Although all of the steps involved in expressing a gene can in principle be regulated, for most genes the initiation of RNA transcription is the most important point of control.

DNA-binding Motifs in Gene Regulatory Proteins [5]

How does a cell determine which of its thousands of genes to transcribe? As discussed in Chapter 8, the transcription of each gene is controlled by a regulatory region of DNA near the site where transcription begins. Some regulatory regions are simple and act as switches that are thrown by a single signal. Other regulatory regions are complex and act as tiny microprocessors, responding to a variety of signals that they interpret and integrate to switch the neighboring gene on or off. Whether complex or simple, these switching devices consist of two fundamental types of components: (1) short stretches of DNA of defined sequence and (2) *gene regulatory proteins* that recognize and bind to them.

We begin our discussion of gene regulatory proteins by describing how these proteins were discovered.

Gene Regulatory Proteins Were Discovered Using Bacterial Genetics [6]

Genetic analyses in bacteria carried out in the 1950s provided the first evidence of the existence of **gene regulatory proteins** that turn specific sets of genes on or off. One of these regulators, the *lambda repressor,* is encoded by a bacterial virus, *bacteriophage lambda.* The repressor shuts off the viral genes that code for the protein components of new virus particles and thereby enables the viral genome to remain a silent passenger in the bacterial chromosome, multiplying with the bacterium when conditions are favorable for bacterial growth (see Figure 6–80). The lambda repressor was among the first gene regulatory proteins to be characterized, and it remains one of the best understood, as we discuss later. Other bacterial regulators respond to nutritional conditions by shutting off genes encoding specific sets of metabolic enzymes when they are not needed. The *lac repressor,* for example, the first of these bacterial proteins to be recognized, turns off the production of the proteins responsible for lactose metabolism when this sugar is absent from the medium.

The first step toward understanding gene regulation was the isolation of mutant strains of bacteria and bacteriophage lambda that were unable to shut off specific sets of genes. It was proposed at the time, and later proved, that most of these mutants were deficient in proteins acting as specific repressors for these sets of genes. Because these proteins, like most gene regulatory proteins, are present in small quantities, it was difficult and time-consuming to isolate them. They were eventually purified by fractionating cell extracts on a series of standard chromatography columns (see pp. 166–169). Once isolated, the proteins were shown to bind to specific DNA sequences close to the genes that they

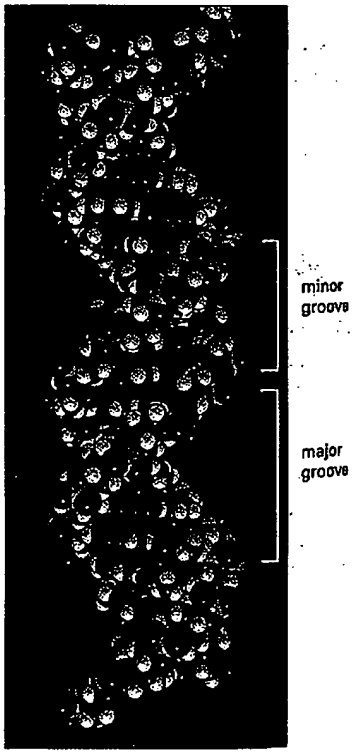

Figure 9–3 Double-helical structure of DNA. The major and minor grooves on the outside of the double helix are indicated. The atoms are colored as follows: carbon, *dark blue;* nitrogen, *light blue;* hydrogen, *white;* oxygen, *red;* phosphorus, *yellow.*

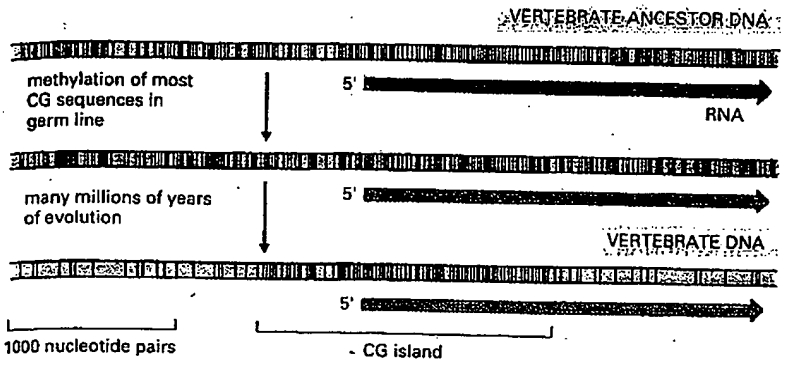

Figure 9–71 A mechanism to explain both the marked deficiency of CG sequences and the presence of CG islands in vertebrate genomes. A *black line* marks the location of an unmethylated CG dinucleotide in the DNA sequence, while a *red line* marks the location of a methylated CG dinucleotide.

Summary

The many types of cells in animals and plants are created largely through mechanisms that cause different genes to be transcribed in different cells. Since many specialized animal cells can maintain their unique character when grown in culture, the gene regulatory mechanisms involved in creating them must be stable once established and heritable when the cell divides, endowing the cell with a memory of its developmental history. Procaryotes and yeasts provide unusually accessible model systems in which to study gene regulatory mechanisms, some of which may be relevant to the creation of specialized cell types in higher eucaryotes. One such mechanism involves a competitive interaction between two (or more) gene regulatory proteins, each of which inhibits the synthesis of the other; this can create a flip-flop switch that switches a cell between two alternative patterns of gene expression. Direct or indirect positive feedback loops, which enable gene regulatory proteins to perpetuate their own synthesis, provide a general mechanism for cell memory.

In eucaryotes gene transcription is generally controlled by combinations of gene regulatory proteins. It is thought that each type of cell in a higher eucaryotic organism contains a specific combination of gene regulatory proteins that ensures the expression of only those genes appropriate to that type of cell. A given gene regulatory protein may be expressed in a variety of circumstances and typically is involved in the regulation of many genes.

In addition to diffusible gene regulatory proteins, inherited states of chromatin condensation are also utilized by eucaryotic cells to regulate gene expression. In vertebrates DNA methylation also plays a part, mainly as a device to reinforce decisions about gene expression that are made initially by other mechanisms.

Posttranscriptional Controls

Although controls on the initiation of gene transcription are the predominant form of regulation for most genes, other controls can act later in the pathway from RNA to protein to modulate the amount of gene product that is made. Although these **posttranscriptional controls,** which operate after RNA polymerase has bound to the gene's promoter and begun RNA synthesis, are less common than *transcriptional control,* for many genes they are crucial. It seems that every step in gene expression that could be controlled in principle is likely to be regulated under some circumstances for some genes.

We consider the varieties of posttranscriptional regulation in temporal order, according to the sequence of events that might be experienced by an RNA molecule after its transcription has begun (Figure 9–72).

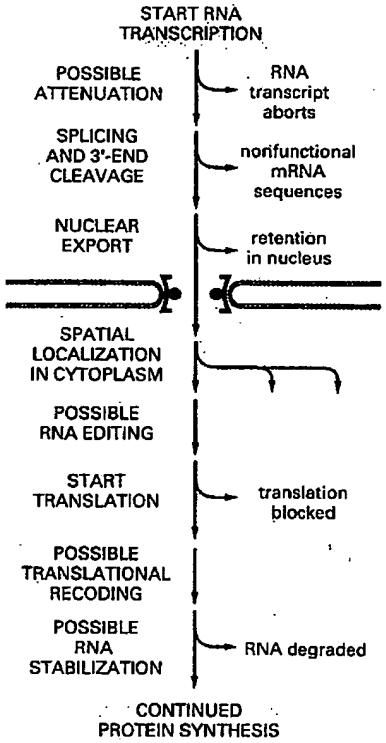

Figure 9–72 Possible posttranscriptional controls on gene expression. Only a few of these controls are likely to be used for any one gene.

EXHIBIT 2

CHAPTER 29

Regulation of transcription

Genes VII (1997) CH 29, pp. 847-848.
Benjamin Lewin

The phenotypic differences that distinguish the various kinds of cells in a higher eukaryote are largely due to differences in the expression of genes that code for proteins, that is, those transcribed by RNA polymerase II. In principle, the expression of these genes might be regulated at any one of several stages. The concept of the "level of control" implies that gene expression is not necessarily an automatic process once it has begun. It could be regulated in a gene-specific way at any one of several sequential steps. We can distinguish (at least) five potential control points, forming the series:

Activation of gene structure
↓
Initiation of transcription
↓
Processing the transcript
↓
Transport to cytoplasm
↓
Translation of mRNA

The existence of the first step is implied by the discovery that genes may exist in either of two structural conditions. Relative to the state of most of the genome, genes are found in an "active" state in the cells in which they are expressed (see Chapter 27). The change of structure is distinct from the act of transcription, and indicates that the gene is "transcribable." This suggests that acquisition of the "active" structure must be the first step in gene expression.

Transcription of a gene in the active state is controlled at the stage of initiation, that is, by the interaction of RNA polymerase with its promoter. This is now becoming susceptible to analysis in the *in vitro* systems (see Chapter 28). For most genes, this is a major control point: probably it is the most common level of regulation.

There is at present no evidence for control at subsequent stages of transcription in eukaryotic cells, for example, via antitermination mechanisms.

The primary transcript is modified by capping at the 5' end, and usually also by polyadenylation at the 3' end. Introns must be spliced out from the transcripts of interrupted genes. The mature RNA must be exported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm. Regulation of gene expression by selection of sequences at the level of nuclear RNA might involve any or all of these stages, but the one for which we have most evidence concerns changes in splicing: some genes are expressed by means of alternative splicing patterns whose regulation controls the type of protein product (see Chapter 30).

Finally, the translation of an mRNA in the cytoplasm can be specifically controlled. There is little evidence for the employment of this mechanism in adult somatic cells, but it does occur in some embryonic situations, as described in Chapter 7. The mechanism is presumed to involve the blocking of initiation of translation of some mRNAs by specific protein factors.

But having acknowledged that control of gene expression can occur at multiple stages, and that production of RNA cannot inevitably be equated with production of protein, it is clear

that the overwhelming majority of regulatory events occur at the initiation of transcription. Regulation of tissue-specific gene transcription lies at the heart of eukaryotic differentiation; indeed, we see examples in Chapter 38 in which proteins that regulate embryonic development prove to be transcription factors. A regulatory transcription factor serves to provide common control of a large number of target genes, and we seek to answer two questions about this mode of regulation: what identifies the common target genes to the transcription factor; and how is the activity of the transcription factor itself regulated in response to intrinsic or extrinsic signals?

Response elements identify genes under common regulation

The principle that emerges from characterizing groups of genes under common control is that *they share a promoter element that is recognized by a regulatory transcription factor.* An element that causes a gene to respond to such a factor is called a response element; examples are the HSE (heat shock response element), GRE (glucocorticoid response element), SRE (serum response element).

The properties of some inducible transcription factors and the elements that they recognize are summarized in Table 29.1. Response elements have the same general characteristics as upstream elements of promoters or enhancers. They contain short consensus sequences, and copies of the response elements found in different genes are closely related, but not necessarily identical. The region bound by the factor extends for a short distance on either side of the consensus sequence. In promoters, the elements are not present at fixed distances from the startpoint, but are usually <200 bp upstream of it. The presence of a single element usually is sufficient to confer the regulatory response, but sometimes there are multiple copies.

Table 29.1 Inducible transcription factors bind to response elements that identify groups of promoters or enhancers subject to coordinate control.

Regulatory Agent	Module	Consensus	Factor
Heat shock	HSE	CNNGAANNTCCNNG	HSTF
Glucocorticoid	GRE	TGGTACAAATGTTCT	Receptor
Phorbol ester	TRE	TGACTCA	AP1
Serum	SRE	CCATATTAGG	SRF

Response elements may be located in promoters or in enhancers. Some types of elements are typically found in one rather than the other: usually an HSE is found in a promoter, while a GRE is found in an enhancer. We assume that all response elements function by the same general principle. *A gene is regulated by a sequence at the promoter or enhancer that is recognized by a specific protein. The protein functions as a transcription factor needed for RNA polymerase to initiate. Active protein is available only under conditions when the gene is to be expressed; its absence means that the promoter is not activated by this particular circuit.*

An example of a situation in which many genes are controlled by a single factor is provided by the heat shock response. This is common to a wide range of prokaryotes and eukaryotes and involves multiple controls of gene expression: an increase in temperature turns off transcription of some genes, turns on transcription of the heat shock genes, and causes changes in the translation of mRNAs. The control of the heat shock genes illustrates the differences between prokaryotic and eukaryotic modes of control. In bacteria, a new sigma factor is synthesized that directs RNA polymerase holoenzyme to recognize an alter-

EXHIBIT 3

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Research

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Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) expression in human prostate cancer tissues and its potential role in prostate carcinogenesis and progression of prostate cancer

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Abstract

Background: Prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA) is a recently defined homologue of the Thy-1/Ly-6 family of glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored cell surface antigens. The purpose of the present study was to examine the expression status of PSCA protein and mRNA in clinical specimens of human prostate cancer (Pca) and to validate it as a potential molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of Pca.

Materials and Methods: Immunohistochemical (IHC) and *in situ* hybridization (ISH) analyses of PSCA expression were simultaneously performed on paraffin-embedded sections from 20 benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), 20 prostatic intraepithelial neoplasm (PIN) and 48 prostate cancer (Pca) tissues, including 9 androgen-independent prostate cancers. The level of PSCA expression was semiquantitatively scored by assessing both the percentage and intensity of PSCA-positive staining cells in the specimens. Then compared PSCA expression between BPH, PIN and Pca tissues and analysed the correlations of PSCA expression level with pathological grade, clinical stage and progression to androgen-independence in Pca.

Results: In BPH and low grade PIN, PSCA protein and mRNA staining were weak or negative and less intense and uniform than that seen in HGPIN and Pca. There were moderate to strong PSCA protein and mRNA expression in 8 of 11 (72.7%) HGPIN and in 40 of 48 (83.4%) Pca specimens examined by IHC and ISH analyses, with statistical significance compared with BPH (20%) and low grade PIN (22.2%) samples ($p < 0.05$, respectively). The expression level of PSCA increased with high Gleason grade, advanced stage and progression to androgen-independence ($p < 0.05$, respectively). In addition, IHC and ISH staining showed a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA overexpression.

Conclusions: Our data demonstrate that PSCA as a new cell surface marker is overexpressed by a majority of human Pca. PSCA expression correlates positively with adverse tumor characteristics, such as increasing pathological grade (poor cell differentiation), worsening clinical stage and androgen-independence, and speculatively with prostate carcinogenesis. PSCA protein overexpression results from upregulated transcription of PSCA mRNA. PSCA may have prognostic utility and may be a promising molecular target for diagnosis and treatment of Pca.

Introduction

Prostate cancer (Pca) is the second leading cause of cancer-related death in American men and is becoming a common cancer increasing in China. Despite recently great progress in the diagnosis and management of localized disease, there continues to be a need for new diagnostic markers that can accurately discriminate between indolent and aggressive variants of Pca. There also continues to be a need for the identification and characterization of potential new therapeutic targets on Pca cells. Current diagnostic and therapeutic modalities for recurrent and metastatic Pca have been limited by a lack of specific target antigens of Pca.

Although a number of prostate-specific genes have been identified (i.e. prostate specific antigen, prostatic acid phosphatase, glandular kallikrein 2), the majority of these are secreted proteins not ideally suited for many immunological strategies. So, the identification of new cell surface antigens is critical to the development of new diagnostic and therapeutic approaches to the management of Pca.

Reiter RE et al [1] reported the identification of prostate stem cell antigen (PSCA), a cell surface antigen that is predominantly prostate specific. The PSCA gene encodes a 123 amino acid glycoprotein, with 30% homology to stem cell antigen 2 (Sca 2). Like Sca-2, PSCA also belongs to a member of the Thy-1/Ly-6 family and is anchored by a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) linkage. mRNA *in situ* hybridization (ISH) localized PSCA expression in normal prostate to the basal cell epithelium, the putative stem cell compartment of prostatic epithelium, suggesting that PSCA may be a marker of prostate stem/progenitor cells.

In order to examine the status of PSCA protein and mRNA expression in human Pca and validate it as a potential diagnostic and therapeutic target for Pca, we used immunohistochemistry (IHC) and *in situ* hybridization (ISH) simultaneously, and conducted PSCA protein and mRNA expression analyses in paraffin-embedded tissue specimens of benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH, n = 20), prostate intraepithelial neoplasm (PIN, n = 20) and prostate cancer (Pca, n = 48). Furthermore, we evaluated the possible correlation of PSCA expression level with Pca tumorigenesis, grade, stage and progression to androgen-independence.

Materials and methods

Tissue samples

All of the clinical tissue specimens studied herein were obtained from 80 patients of 57–84 years old by prostatectomy, transurethral resection of prostate (TURP) or biopsies. The patients were classified as 20 cases of BPH, 20 cases of PIN, 40 cases of primary Pca, including 9 patients with recurrent Pca and a history of androgen ablation therapy (orchiectomy and/or hormonal therapy), who were referred to as androgen-independent prostate cancers. Eight specimens were harvested from these androgen-independent Pca patients prior to androgen ablation treatment. Each tissue sample was cut into two parts, one was fixed in 10% formalin for IHC and the other treated with 4% paraformaldehyde/0.1 M PBS PH 7.4 in 0.1% DEPC for 1 h for ISH analysis, and then embedded in paraffin. All paraffin blocks examined were then cut into 5 μm sections and mounted on the glass slides specific for IHC and ISH respectively in the usual fashion. H&E-stained section of each Pca was evaluated and assigned a Gleason score by the experienced urological pathologist at our institution based on the criteria of Gleason score [2]. The Gleason sums are summarized in Table 1. Clinical staging was performed according to Jewett-whitmore-prout staging system, as shown in Table 2. In the category of PIN, we graded the specimens into two groups, i.e. low grade PIN (grade I – II) and high grade PIN (HGPIN, grade III) on the basis of literatures [3,4].

Immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis

Briefly, tissue sections were deparaffinized, dehydrated, and subjected to microwaving in 10 mmol/L citrate buffer, PH 6.0 (Boshide, Wuhan, China) in a 900 W oven for 5 min to induce epitope retrieval. Slides were allowed to cool at room temperature for 30 min. A primary mouse antibody specific to human PSCA (Boshide, Wuhan, China) with a 1:100 dilution was applied to incubate with the slides at room temperature for 2 h. Labeling was detected by sequentially adding biotinylated secondary antibodies and strepavidin-peroxidase, and localized using 3,3'-diaminobenzidine reaction. Sections were then counterstained with hematoxylin. Substitution of the primary antibody with phosphate-buffered-saline (PBS) served as a negative-staining control.

mRNA in situ hybridization (ISH)

Five-μm-thick tissue sections were deparaffinized and dehydrated, then digested in pepsin solution (4 mg/ml in 3% citric acid) for 20 min at 37.5°C, and further processed for ISH. Digoxigenin-labeled sense and antisense human PSCA RNA probes (obtained from Boshide, Wuhan, China) were hybridized to the sections at 48°C overnight. The posthybridization wash with a high stringency was performed sequentially at 37°C in 2 × standard saline citrate (SSC) for 10 min, in 0.5 × SSC for 15 min and in 0.2 × SSC for 30 min. The slides were then incubated to biotinylated mouse anti-digoxigenin antibody at 37.5°C for 1 h followed by washing in 1 × PBS for 20 min at room temperature, and then to strepavidin-peroxidase at 37.5°C for 20 min followed by washing in 1 × PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Subsequently, the slides were developed with diaminobenzidine and then coun-

Table 1: Correlation of PSCA expression with Gleason score

	Intensity × frequency	
Gleason score	0–6 (%)	9 (%)
2–4	5 (83)	1 (17)
5–7	19 (79)	5 (21)
8–10	5 (28)	13 (72)

Table 2: Correlation of PSCA expression with clinical stage

	Intensity × frequency	
Tumor stage	0–6 (%)	9 (%)
≤B	27 (67.5)	13 (32.5)
≥C	2 (25)	6 (75)

terstained with hematoxylin to localize the hybridization signals. Sections hybridized with the sense control probes routinely did not show any specific hybridization signal above background. All slides were hybridized with PBS to substitute for the probes as a negative control.

Scoring methods

To determine the correlation between the results of PSCA immunostaining and mRNA *in situ* hybridization, the same scoring manners are taken in the present study for PSCA protein staining by IHC and PSCA mRNA staining by ISH. Each slide was read and scored by two independently experienced urological pathologists using Olympus BX-41 light microscopes. The evaluation was done in a blinded fashion. For each section, five areas of similar grade were analyzed semiquantitatively for the fraction of cells staining. Fifty percent of specimens were randomly chosen and rescored to determine the degree of interobserver and intraobserver concordance. There was greater than 95% intra- and interobserver agreement.

The intensity of PSCA expression evaluated microscopically was graded on a scale of 0 to 3+ with 3 being the highest expression observed (0, no staining; 1+, mildly intense; 2+, moderately intense; 3+, severely intense). The staining density was quantified as the percentage of cells staining positive for PSCA with the primary antibody or hybridization probe, as follows: 0 = no staining; 1 = positive staining in <25% of the sample; 2 = positive staining in 25%–50% of the sample; 3 = positive staining in >50% of the sample. Intensity score (0 to 3+) was multiplied by the density score (0–3) to give an overall score of 0–9 [1,5]. In this way, we were able to differentiate specimens that may have had focal areas of increased staining from those that had diffuse areas of increased staining [6]. The overall score for each specimen was then categorically assigned to one of the following groups: 0 score, negative expression; 1–2 scores, weak expression; 3–6 scores, moderate expression; 9 score, strong expression.

Statistical analysis

Intensity and density of PSCA protein and mRNA expression in BPH, PIN and Pca tissues were compared using the Chi-square and Student's *t*-test. Univariate associations between PSCA expression and Gleason score, clinical stage and progression to androgen-independence were calculated using Fisher's Exact Test. For all analyses, $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

PSCA expression in BPH

In general, PSCA protein and mRNA were expressed weakly in individual samples of BPH. Some areas of prostate expressed weak levels (composite score 1–2), whereas other areas were completely negative (composite score 0). Four cases (20%) of BPH had moderate expression of PSCA protein and mRNA (composite score 4–6) by IHC and ISH. In 2/20 (10%) BPH specimens, PSCA mRNA expression was moderate (composite score 3–6), but PSCA protein expression was weak (composite score

2) in one and negative (composite score 0) in the other. PSCA expression was localized to the basal and secretory epithelial cells, and prostatic stroma was almost negative staining for PSCA protein and mRNA in all cases examined.

PSCA expression in PIN

In this study, we detected weak or negative expression of PSCA protein and mRNA (≤2 scores) in 7 of 9 (77.8%) low grade PIN and in 2 of 11 (18.2%) HGPIN, and moderate expression (3–6 scores) in the rest 2 low grade PIN and 5 of 11 (45.5%) HGPIN. One HGPIN with moderate PSCA mRNA expression (6 score) was found weak staining for PSCA protein (2 score) by IHC. Strong PSCA protein and mRNA expression (9 score) were detected in the remaining 3 of 11 (27.3%) HGPIN. There was a statistically significant difference of PSCA protein and mRNA expression levels observed between HGPIN and BPH ($p < 0.05$), but no statistical difference reached between low grade PIN and BPH ($p > 0.05$).

PSCA expression in Pca

In order to determine if PSCA protein and mRNA can be detected in prostate cancers and if PSCA expression levels are increased in malignant compared with benign glands, Forty-eight paraffin-embedded Pca specimens were analysed by IHC and ISH. It was shown that 19 of 48 (39.6%) Pca samples stained very strongly for PSCA protein and mRNA with a score of 9 and another 21 (43.8%) specimens displayed moderate staining with scores of 4–6 (Figure 1). In addition, 4 specimens with moderate to strong PSCA mRNA expression (scores of 4–9) had weak protein staining (a score of 2) by IHC analyses. Overall, Pca expressed a significantly higher level of PSCA protein and mRNA than any other specimen category in this study ($p < 0.05$, compared with BPH and PIN respectively). The result demonstrates that PSCA protein and mRNA are overexpressed by a majority of human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with Gleason score in Pca

Using the semi-quantitative scoring method as described in Materials and Methods, we compared the expression level of PSCA protein and mRNA with Gleason grade of Pca, as shown in Table 1. Prostate adenocarcinomas were graded by Gleason score as 2–4 scores = well-differentiation, 5–7 scores = moderate-differentiation and 8–10 scores = poor-differentiation [7]. Seventy-two percent of Gleason scores 8–10 prostate cancers had very strong staining of PSCA compared to 21% with Gleason scores 5–7 and 17% with 2–4 respectively, demonstrating that poorly differentiated Pca had significantly stronger expression of PSCA protein and mRNA than moderately and well differentiated tumors ($p < 0.05$). As depicted in Figure 1, IHC and ISH analyses showed that PSCA protein and mRNA expression in several cases of poorly differentiated Pca were particularly prominent, with more intense and uniform staining. The results indicate that PSCA expression increases significantly with higher tumor grade in human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with clinical stage in Pca

With regards to PSCA expression in every stage of Pca, we showed the results in Table 2. Seventy-five percent of locally advanced and node positive cancers (i.e. C-D stages) expressed statistically high levels of PSCA versus 32.5% that were organ confined (i.e. A-B stages) ($p < 0.05$). The data demonstrate that PSCA expression increases significantly with advanced tumor stage in human Pca.

Correlation of PSCA expression with androgen-independent progression of Pca

All 9 specimens of androgen-independent prostate cancers stained positive for PSCA protein and mRNA. Eight specimens were obtained from patients managed prior to androgen ablation therapy. Seven of eight (87.5%) of these androgen-independent prostate cancers were in the strongest staining category (score = 9), compared with three out of eight (37.5%) of patients with androgen-dependent cancers ($p < 0.05$). The results demonstrate that PSCA expression increases significantly with progression to androgen-independence of human Pca.

It is evident from the results above that within a majority of human prostate cancers the level of PSCA protein and mRNA expression correlates significantly with increasing grade, worsening stage and progression to androgen-independence.

Correlation of PSCA immunostaining and mRNA in situ hybridization

In all 88 specimens surveyed herein, we compared the results of PSCA IHC staining with mRNA ISH analysis. Positive staining areas and its intensity and density scores evaluated by IHC were identical to those seen by ISH in 79 of 88 (89.8%) specimens (18/20 BPH, 19/20 PIN and 42/48 Pca respectively). Importantly, 27/27 samples with PSCA mRNA composite scores of 0–2, 32/36 samples with scores of 3–6 and 22/24 samples with a score of 9 also had PSCA protein expression scores of 0–2, 3–6 and 9 respectively. However, in 5 samples with PSCA mRNA overall scores of 3–6 and in 2 with scores of 9 there were less or negative PSCA protein expression (i.e. scores of 0–4), suggesting that this may reflect posttranscriptional modification of PSCA or that the epitopes recognized by PSCA mAb may be obscured in some cancers. The data demonstrate that the results of PSCA immunostaining were consistent with those of mRNA ISH analysis, showing a high degree of correlation between PSCA protein and mRNA expression.

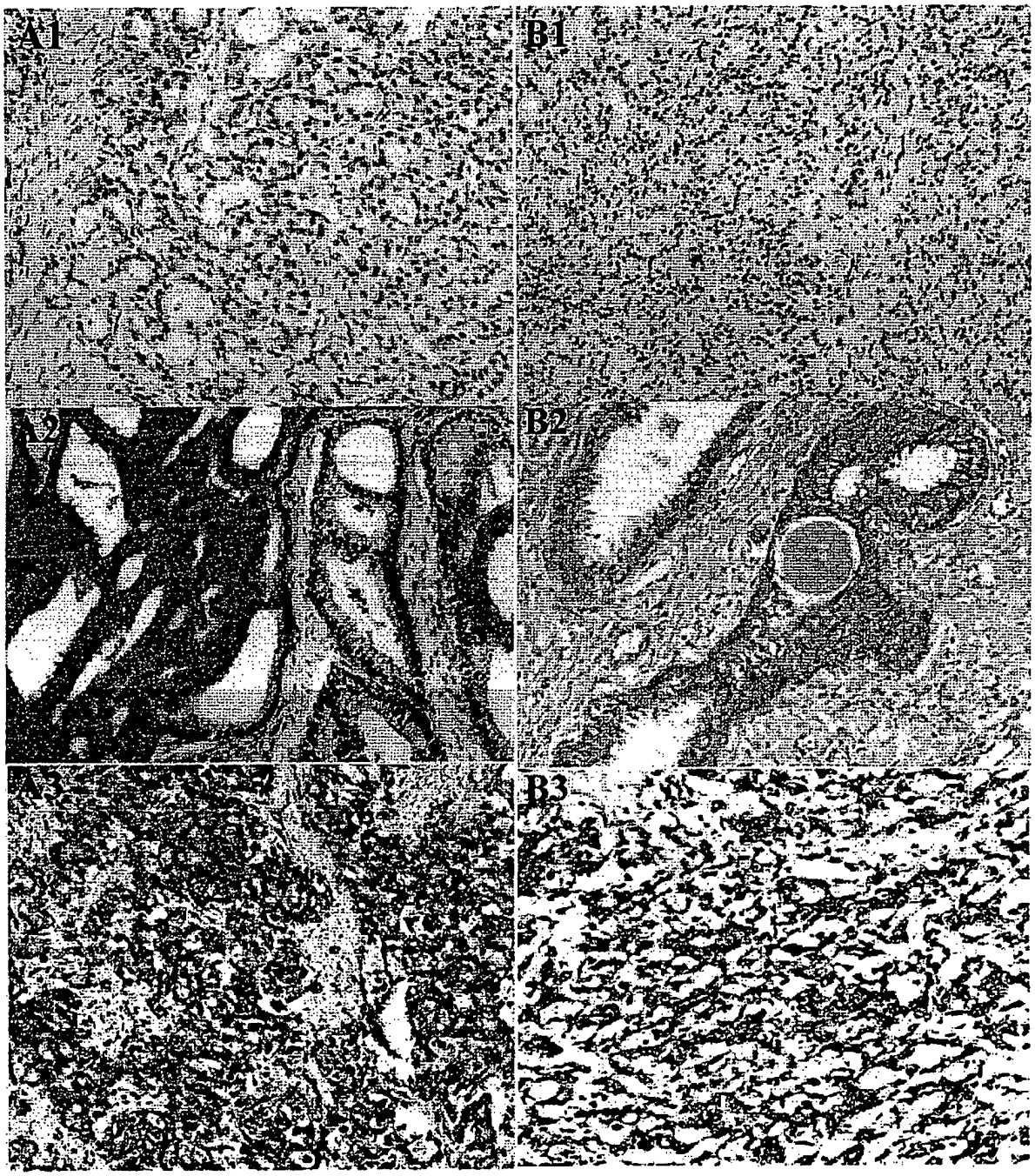

Figure 1
Representatives of PSCA IHC and ISH staining in Pca (A. IHC staining, B. ISH staining, ×200 magnification). A_1, B_1: negative control of IHC and ISH. PBS replacing the primary antibody (A_1) and hybridization with a sense PSCA probe (B_1) showed no background staining. A_2, B_2: a moderately differentiated Pca (Gleason score = 3+3 = 6) with moderate staining (composite score = 6) in all malignant cells; A_2: IHC shows not only cell surface but also apparent cytoplasmic staining of PSCA protein. A_3, B_3: a poorly differentiated Pca (Gleason score = 4+4 = 8) with very strong staining (composite score = 9) in all malignant cells.

Discussion

PSCA is homologous to a group of cell surface proteins that mark the earliest phase of hematopoietic development. PSCA mRNA expression is prostate-specific in normal male tissues and is highly up-regulated in both androgen-dependent and-independent Pca xenografts (LAPC-4 tumors). We hypothesize that PSCA may play a role in Pca tumorigenesis and progression, and may serve as a target for Pca diagnosis and treatment. In this study, IHC and ISH showed that in general there were weak or absent PSCA protein and mRNA expression in BPH and low grade PIN tissues. However, PSCA protein and mRNA are widely expressed in HGPIN, the putative precursor of invasive Pca, suggesting that up-regulation of PSCA is an early event in prostate carcinogenesis. Recently, Reiter RE et al [1], using ISH analysis, reported that 97 of 118 (82%) HGPIN specimens stained strongly positive for PSCA mRNA. A very similar finding was seen on mouse PSCA (mPSCA) expression in mouse HGPIN tissues by Tran C. P et al [8]. These data suggest that PSCA may be a new marker associated with transformation of prostate cells and tumorigenesis.

We observed that PSCA protein and mRNA are highly expressed in a large percentage of human prostate cancers, including advanced, poorly differentiated, androgen-independent and metastatic cases. Fluorescence-activated cell sorting and confocal/ immunofluorescent studies demonstrated cell surface expression of PSCA protein in Pca cells [9]. Our IHC expression analysis of PSCA shows not only cell surface but also apparent cytoplasmic staining of PSCA protein in Pca specimens (Figure 1). One possible explanation for this is that anti-PSCA antibody can recognize PSCA peptide precursors that reside in the cytoplasm. Also, it is possible that the positive staining that appears in the cytoplasm is actually from the overlying cell membrane [5]. These data seem to indicate that PSCA is a novel cell surface marker for human Pca.

Our results show that elevated level of PSCA expression correlates with high grade (i.e. poor differentiation), increased tumor stage and progression to androgen-independence of Pca. These findings support the original IHC analyses by Gu Z et al [9], who reported that PSCA protein expressed in 94% of primary Pca and the intensity of PSCA protein expression increased with tumor grade, stage and progression to androgen-independence. Our results also collaborate the recent work of Han KR et al [10], in which the significant association between high PSCA expression and adverse prognostic features such as high Gleason score, seminal vesicle invasion and capsular involvement in Pca was found. It is suggested that PSCA overexpression may be an adverse predictor for recurrence, clinical progression or survival of Pca. Hara H et al [11] used RT-PCR detection of PSA, PSMA and PSCA in 1 ml of peripheral blood to evaluate Pca patients with poor prognosis. The results showed that among 58 PCa patients, each PCR indicated the prognostic value in the hierarchy of PSCA>PSA>PSMA RT-PCR, and extraprostatic cases with positive PSCA PCR indicated lower disease-progression-free survival than those with negative PSCA PCR, demonstrating that PSCA can be used as a prognostic factor. Dubey P et al [12] reported that elevated numbers of PSCA + cells correlate positively with the onset and development of prostate carcinoma over a long time span in the prostates of the TRAMP and PTEN +/- models compared with its normal prostates. Taken together with our present findings, in which PSCA is overexpressed from HGPIN to almost frank carcinoma, it is reasonable and possible to use increased PSCA expression level or increased numbers of PSCA-positive cells in the prostate samples as a prognostic marker to predict the potential onset of this cancer. These data raise the possibility that PSCA may have diagnostic utility or clinical prognostic value in human Pca.

The cause of PSCA overexpression in Pca is not known. One possible mechanism is that it may result from PSCA gene amplification. In humans, PSCA is located on chromosome 8q24.2 [1], which is often amplified in metastatic and recurrent Pca and considered to indicate a poor prognosis [13-15]. Interestingly, PSCA is in close proximity to the c-myc oncogene, which is amplified in >20% of recurrent and metastatic prostate cancers [16,17]. Reiter RE et al [18] reported that PSCA and MYC gene copy numbers were co-amplified in 25% of tumors (five out of twenty), demonstrating that PSCA overexpression is associated with PSCA and MYC coamplification in Pca. Gu Z et al [9] recently reporteted that in 102 specimens available to compare the results of PSCA immunostaining with their previous mRNA ISH analysis, 92 (90.2%) had identically positive areas of PSCA protein and mRNA expression. Taken together with our findings, in which we detected moderate to strong expression of PSCA protein and mRNA in 34 of 40 (85%) Pca specimens examined simultaneously by IHC and ISH analyses, it is demonstrated that PSCA protein and mRNA overexpressed in human Pca, and that the increased protein level of PSCA was resulted from the upregulated transcription of its mRNA.

At present, the regulation mechanisms of human PSCA expression and its biological function are yet to be elucidated. PSCA expression may be regulated by multiple factors [18]. Watabe T et al [19] reported that transcriptional control is a major component regulating PSCA expression levels. In addition, induction of PSCA expression may be regulated or mediated through cell-cell contact and protein kinase C (PKC) [20]. Homologues of PSCA have diverse activities, and have themselves been involved in

carcinogenesis. Signalling through SCA-2 has been demonstrated to prevent apoptosis in immature thymocytes [21]. Thy-1 is involved in T cell activation and transducts signals through src-like tyrosine kinases [22]. Ly-6 genes have been implicated both in tumorigenesis and in cell-cell adhesion [23-25]. Cell-cell or cell-matrix interaction is critical for local tumor growth and spread to distal sites. From its restricted expression in basal cells of normal prostate and its homology to SCA-2, PSCA may play a role in stem/progenitor cell function, such as self-renewal (i.e. anti-apoptosis) and/or proliferation [1]. Taken together with the results in the present study, we speculate that PSCA may play a role in tumorigenesis and clinical progression of Pca through affecting cell transformation and proliferation. From our results, it is also suggested that PSCA as a new cell surface antigen may have a number of potential uses in the diagnosis, therapy and clinical prognosis of human Pca. PSCA overexpression in prostate biopsies could be used to identify patients at high risk to develop recurrent or metastatic disease, and to discriminate cancers from normal glands in prostatectomy samples. Similarly, the detection of PSCA-overexpressing cells in bone marrow or peripheral blood may identify and predict metastatic progression better than current assays, which identify only PSA-positive or PSMA-positive prostate cells.

In summary, we have shown in this study that PSCA protein and mRNA are maintained in expression from HGPIN through all stages of Pca in a majority of cases, which may be associated with prostate carcinogenesis and correlate positively with high tumor grade (poor cell differentiation), advanced stage and androgen-independent progression. PSCA protein overexpression is due to the upregulation of its mRNA transcription. The results suggest that PSCA may be a promising molecular marker for the clinical prognosis of human Pca and a valuable target for diagnosis and therapy of this tumor.

Competing interests

None declared.

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EXHIBIT 4

Review

Translation Initiation in Cancer: A Novel Target for Therapy[1]

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Abstract

Translation initiation is regulated in response to nutrient availability and mitogenic stimulation and is coupled with cell cycle progression and cell growth. Several alterations in translational control occur in cancer. Variant mRNA sequences can alter the translational efficiency of individual mRNA molecules, which in turn play a role in cancer biology. Changes in the expression or availability of components of the translational machinery and in the activation of translation through signal transduction pathways can lead to more global changes, such as an increase in the overall rate of protein synthesis and translational activation of the mRNA molecules involved in cell growth and proliferation. We review the basic principles of translational control, the alterations encountered in cancer, and selected therapies targeting translation initiation to help elucidate new therapeutic avenues.

Introduction

The fundamental principle of molecular therapeutics in cancer is to exploit the differences in gene expression between cancer cells and normal cells. With the advent of cDNA array technology, most efforts have concentrated on identifying differences in gene expression at the level of mRNA, which can be attributable either to DNA amplification or to differences in transcription. Gene expression is quite complicated, however, and is also regulated at the level of mRNA stability, mRNA translation, and protein stability.

The power of translational regulation has been best recognized among developmental biologists, because transcription does not occur in early embryogenesis in eukaryotes. For example, in *Xenopus*, the period of transcriptional quiescence continues until the embryo reaches midblastula transition, the 4000-cell stage. Therefore, all necessary mRNA molecules are transcribed during oogenesis and stockpiled in a translationally inactive, masked form. The mRNA are translationally activated at appropriate times during oocyte maturation, fertilization, and early embryogenesis and thus, are under strict translational control.

Translation has an established role in cell growth. Basically, an increase in protein synthesis occurs as a consequence of mitogenesis. Until recently, however, little was known about the alterations in mRNA translation in cancer, and much is yet to be discovered about their role in the development and progression of cancer. Here we review the basic principles of translational control, the alterations encountered in cancer, and selected therapies targeting translation initiation to elucidate potential new therapeutic avenues.

Basic Principles of Translational Control

Mechanism of Translation Initiation

Translation initiation is the main step in translational regulation. Translation initiation is a complex process in which the initiator tRNA and the 40S and 60S ribosomal subunits are recruited to the 5′ end of a mRNA molecule and assembled by eukaryotic translation initiation factors into an 80S ribosome at the start codon of the mRNA (Fig. 1). The 5′ end of eukaryotic mRNA is capped, *i.e.*, contains the cap structure m^7GpppN (7-methylguanosine-triphospho-5′-ribonucleoside). Most translation in eukaryotes occurs in a cap-dependent fashion, *i.e.*, the cap is specifically recognized by the eIF4E,[3] which binds the 5′ cap. The eIF4F translation initiation complex is then formed by the assembly of eIF4E, the RNA helicase eIF4A, and eIF4G, a scaffolding protein that mediates the binding of the 40S ribosomal subunit to the mRNA molecule through interaction with the eIF3 protein present on the 40S ribosome. eIF4A and eIF4B participate in melting the secondary structure of the 5′ UTR of the mRNA. The 43S initiation complex (40S/eIF2/Met-tRNA/GTP complex) scans the mRNA in a 5′→3′ direction until it encounters an AUG start codon. This start codon is then basepaired to the anticodon of initiator tRNA, forming the 48S initiation complex. The initiation factors are then displaced from the 48S complex, and the 60S ribosome joins to form the 80S ribosome.

Unlike most eukaryotic translation, translation initiation of certain mRNAs, such as the picornavirus RNA, is cap independent and occurs by internal ribosome entry. This mechanism does not require eIF4E. Either the 43S complex can bind the initiation codon directly through interaction with the IRES in the 5′ UTR such as in the encephalomyocarditis virus, or it can

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[3] The abbreviations used are: eIF4E, eukaryotic initiation factor 4E; UTR, untranslated region; IRES, internal ribosome entry site; 4E-BP1, eukaryotic initiation factor 4E-binding protein 1; S6K, ribosomal p70 S6 kinase; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; ATM, ataxia telangiectasia mutated; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PTEN, phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted from chromosome 10; PP2A, protein phosphatase 2A; TGF-β3, transforming growth factor-β3; PAP, poly(A) polymerase; EPA, eicosopentaenoic acid; *mda-7*, melanoma differentiation-associated gene 7.

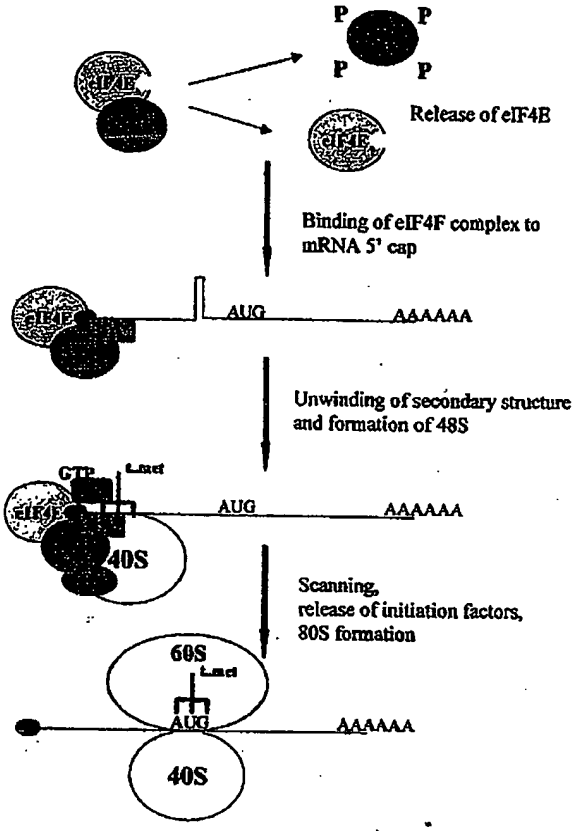

Fig. 1. Translation initiation in eukaryotes. The 4E-BPs are hyperphosphorylated to release eIF4E so that it can interact with the 5' cap, and the eIF4F initiation complex is assembled. The interaction of poly(A) binding protein with the initiation complex and circularization of the mRNA is not depicted in the diagram. The secondary structure of the 5' UTR is melted, the 40S ribosomal subunit is bound to eIF3, and the ternary complex consisting of eIF2, GTP, and the Met-tRNA are recruited to the mRNA. The ribosome scans the mRNA in a 5'→3' direction until an AUG start codon is found in the appropriate sequence context. The initiation factors are released, and the large ribosomal subunit is recruited.

initially attach to the IRES and then reach the initiation codon by scanning or transfer, as is the case with the poliovirus (1).

Regulation of Translation Initiation

Translation initiation can be regulated by alterations in the expression or phosphorylation status of the various factors involved. Key components in translational regulation that may provide potential therapeutic targets follow.

eIF4E. eIF4E plays a central role in translation regulation. It is the least abundant of the initiation factors and is considered the rate-limiting component for initiation of cap-dependent translation. eIF4E may also be involved in mRNA splicing, mRNA 3' processing, and mRNA nucleocytoplasmic transport (2). eIF4E expression can be increased at the transcriptional level in response to serum or growth factors (3). eIF4E overexpression may cause preferential translation of mRNAs containing excessive secondary structure in their 5' UTR that are normally discriminated against by the translational machinery and thus are inefficiently translated (4–7). As examples of this, overexpression of eIF4E promotes increased translation of vascular endothelial growth factor, fibroblast growth factor-2, and cyclin D1 (2, 8, 9).

Another mechanism of control is the regulation of eIF4E phosphorylation. eIF4E phosphorylation is mediated by the mitogen-activated protein kinase-interacting kinase 1, which is activated by the mitogen-activated pathway activating extracellular signal-related kinases and the stress-activated pathway acting through p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (10–13). Several mitogens, such as serum, platelet-derived growth factor, epidermal growth factor, insulin, angiotensin II, src kinase overexpression, and ras overexpression, lead to eIF4E phosphorylation (14). The phosphorylation status of eIF4E is usually correlated with the translational rate and growth status of the cell; however, eIF4E phosphorylation has also been observed in response to some cellular stresses when translational rates actually decrease (15). Thus, further study is needed to understand the effects of eIF4E phosphorylation on eIF4E activity.

Another mechanism of regulation is the alteration of eIF4E availability by the binding of eIF4E to the eIF4E-binding proteins (4E-BP, also known as PHAS-I). 4E-BPs compete with eIF4G for a binding site in eIF4E. The binding of eIF4E to the best characterized eIF4E-binding protein, 4E-BP1, is regulated by 4E-BP1 phosphorylation. Hypophosphorylated 4E-BP1 binds to eIF4E, whereas 4E-BP1 hyperphosphorylation decreases this binding. Insulin, angiotensin, epidermal growth factor, platelet-derived growth factor, hepatocyte growth factor, nerve growth factor, insulin-like growth factors I and II, interleukin 3, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor + steel factor, gastrin, and the adenovirus have all been reported to induce phosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and to decrease the ability of 4E-BP1 to bind eIF4E (15, 16). Conversely, deprivation of nutrients or growth factors results in 4E-BP1 dephosphorylation, an increase in eIF4E binding, and a decrease in cap-dependent translation.

p70 S6 Kinase. Phosphorylation of ribosomal 40S protein S6 by S6K is thought to play an important role in translational regulation. S6K −/− mouse embryonic cells proliferate more slowly than do parental cells, demonstrating that S6K has a positive influence on cell proliferation (17). S6K regulates the translation of a group of mRNAs possessing a 5' terminal oligopyrimidine tract (5' TOP) found at the 5' UTR of ribosomal protein mRNAs and other mRNAs coding for components of the translational machinery. Phosphorylation of S6K is regulated in part based on the availability of nutrients (18, 19) and is stimulated by several growth factors, such as platelet-derived growth factor and insulin-like growth factor I (20).

eIF2α Phosphorylation. The binding of the initiator tRNA to the small ribosomal unit is mediated by translation initiation factor eIF2. Phosphorylation of the α-subunit of eIF2 prevents formation of the eIF2/GTP/Met-tRNA complex and inhibits global protein synthesis (21, 22). eIF2α is phosphorylated under a variety of conditions, such as viral infection, nutrient deprivation, heme deprivation, and apoptosis (22). eIF2α is phosphorylated by heme-regulated inhibitor, nutrient-regulated protein kinase, and the IFN-induced, double-stranded RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR; Ref. 23).

The mTOR Signaling Pathway. The macrolide antibiotic rapamycin (Sirolimus; Wyeth-Ayerst Research, Collegeville, PA) has been the subject of intensive study because it inhibits signal transduction pathways involved in T-cell activation. The rapamycin-sensitive component of these pathways is mTOR (also called FRAP or RAFT1). mTOR is the mammalian homologue of the yeast TOR proteins that regulate G_1 progression and translation in response to nutrient availability (24). mTOR is a serine-threonine kinase that modulates translation initiation by altering the phosphorylation status of 4E-BP1 and S6K (Fig. 2; Ref. 25).

4E-BP1 is phosphorylated on multiple residues. mTOR phosphorylates the Thr-37 and Thr-46 residues of 4E-BP1 *in vitro* (26); however, phosphorylation at these sites is not associated with a loss of eIF4E binding. Phosphorylation of Thr-37 and Thr-46 is required for subsequent phosphorylation at several COOH-terminal, serum-sensitive sites; a combination of these phosphorylation events appears to be needed to inhibit the binding of 4E-BP1 to eIF4E (25). The product of the *ATM* gene, p38/MSK1 pathway, and protein kinase Cσ also play a role in 4E-BP1 phosphorylation (27–29).

S6K and 4E-BP1 are also regulated, in part, by PI3K and its downstream protein kinase Akt. PTEN is a phosphatase that negatively regulates PI3K signaling. PTEN null cells have constitutively active of Akt, with increased S6K activity and S6 phosphorylation (30). S6K activity is inhibited both by PI3K inhibitors wortmannin and LY294002 and by mTOR inhibitor rapamycin (24). Akt phosphorylates Ser-2448 in mTOR *in vitro*, and this site is phosphorylated upon Akt activation *in vivo* (31–33). Thus, mTOR is regulated by the PI3K/Akt pathway; however, this does not appear to be the only mode of regulation of mTOR activity. Whether the PI3K pathway also regulates S6K and 4E-BP1 phosphorylation independent of mTOR is controversial.

Interestingly, mTOR autophosphorylation is blocked by wortmannin but not by rapamycin (34). This seeming inconsistency suggests that mTOR-responsive regulation of 4E-BP1 and S6K activity occurs through a mechanism other than intrinsic mTOR kinase activity. An alternate pathway for 4E-BP1 and S6K phosphorylation by mTOR activity is by the inhibition of a phosphatase. Treatment with calyculin A, an inhibitor of phosphatases 1 and 2A, reduces rapamycin-induced dephosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and S6K by rapamycin (35). PP2A interacts with full-length S6K but not with a S6K mutant that is resistant to dephosphorylation resulting from rapamycin. mTOR phosphorylates PP2A *in vitro*; however, how this process alters PP2A activity is not known. These results are consistent with the model that phosphorylation of a phosphatase by mTOR prevents dephosphorylation of 4E-BP1 and S6K, and conversely, that nutrient deprivation and rapamycin block inhibition of the phosphatase by mTOR.

Polyadenylation. The poly(A) tail in eukaryotic mRNA is important in enhancing translation initiation and mRNA stability. Polyadenylation plays a key role in regulating gene expression during oogenesis and early embryogenesis. Some mRNA that are translationally inactive in the oocyte are polyadenylated concomitantly with translational activation in oocyte maturation, whereas other mRNAs that are translationally active during oogenesis are deadenylated and translationally silenced (36–38). Thus, control of poly(A) tail synthesis is an important regulatory step in gene expression. The 5′ cap and poly(A) tail are thought to function synergistically to regulate mRNA translational efficiency (39, 40).

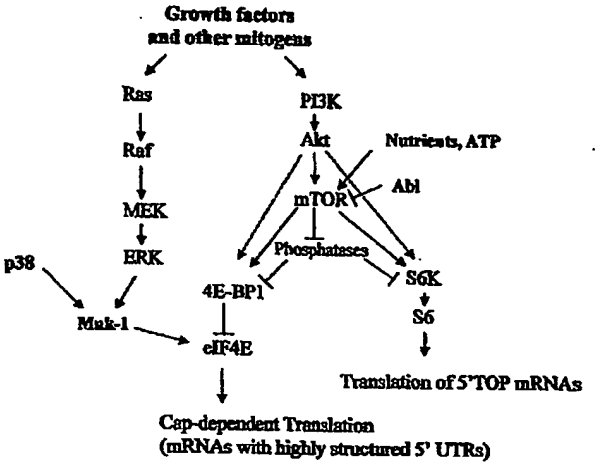

Fig. 2. Regulation of translation initiation by signal transduction pathways. Signaling via p38, extracellular signal-related kinase, PI3K, and mTOR can all activate translation initiation.

RNA Packaging. Most RNA-binding proteins are assembled on a transcript at the time of transcription, thus determining the translational fate of the transcript (41). A highly conserved family of Y-box proteins is found in cytoplasmic messenger ribonucleoprotein particles, where the proteins are thought to play a role in restricting the recruitment of mRNA to the translational machinery (41–43). The major mRNA-associated protein, YB-1, destabilizes the interaction of eIF4E and the 5′ mRNA cap *in vitro*, and overexpression of YB-1 results in translational repression *in vivo* (44). Thus, alterations in RNA packaging can also play an important role in translational regulation.

Translation Alterations Encountered in Cancer

Three main alterations at the translational level occur in cancer: variations in mRNA sequences that increase or decrease translational efficiency, changes in the expression or availability of components of the translational machinery, and activation of translation through aberrantly activated signal transduction pathways. The first alteration affects the translation of an individual mRNA that may play a role in carcinogenesis. The second and third alterations can lead to more global changes, such as an increase in the overall rate of protein synthesis, and the translational activation of several mRNA species.

Variations in mRNA Sequence

Variations in mRNA sequence affect the translational efficiency of the transcript. A brief description of these variations and examples of each mechanism follow.

Mutations. Mutations in the mRNA sequence, especially in the 5′ UTR, can alter its translational efficiency, as seen in the following examples.

c-myc. Saito *et al.* proposed that translation of full-length c-*myc* is repressed, whereas in several Burkitt lymphomas that have deletions of the mRNA 5′ UTR, translation of c-*myc* is more efficient (45). More recently, it was reported that the 5′ UTR of c-*myc* contains an IRES, and thus c-*myc* translation can be initiated by a cap-independent as well as a cap-dependent mechanism (46, 47). In patients with multiple myeloma, a C→T mutation in the c-myc IRES was identified (48) and found to cause an enhanced initiation of translation via internal ribosomal entry (49).

BRCA1. A somatic point mutation (117 G→C) in position −3 with respect to the start codon of the *BRCA1* gene was identified in a highly aggressive sporadic breast cancer (50). Chimeric constructs consisting of the wild-type or mutated *BRCA1* 5′ UTR and a downstream luciferase reporter demonstrated a decrease in the translational efficiency with the 5′ UTR mutation.

Cyclin-dependent Kinase Inhibitor 2A. Some inherited melanoma kindreds have a G→T transversion at base −34 of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor-2A, which encodes a cyclin-dependent kinase 4/cyclin-dependent kinase 6 kinase inhibitor important in G_1 checkpoint regulation (51). This mutation gives rise to a novel AUG translation initiation codon, creating an upstream open reading frame that competes for scanning ribosomes and decreases translation from the wild-type AUG.

Alternate Splicing and Alternate Transcription Start Sites. Alterations in splicing and alternate transcription sites can lead to variations in 5′ UTR sequence, length, and secondary structure, ultimately impacting translational efficiency.

ATM. The *ATM* gene has four noncoding exons in its 5′ UTR that undergo extensive alternative splicing (52). The contents of 12 different 5′ UTRs that show considerable diversity in length and sequence have been identified. These divergent 5′ leader sequences play an important role in the translational regulation of the *ATM* gene.

mdm. In a subset of tumors, overexpression of the oncoprotein mdm2 results in enhanced translation of the *mdm2* mRNA. Use of different promoters leads to two *mdm2* transcripts that differ only in their 5′ leaders (53). The longer 5′ UTR contains two upstream open reading frames, and this mRNA is loaded with ribosomes inefficiently compared with the short 5′ UTR.

BRCA1. In a normal mammary gland, *BRCA1* mRNA is expressed with a shorter leader sequence (5′UTRa), whereas in sporadic breast cancer tissue, *BRCA1* mRNA is expressed with a longer leader sequence (5′ UTRb); the translational efficiency of transcripts containing 5′ UTRb is 10 times lower than that of transcripts containing 5′ UTRa (54).

TGF-β3. *TGF-β3* mRNA includes a 1.1-kb 5′ UTR, which exerts an inhibitory effect on translation. Many human breast cancer cell lines contain a novel *TGF-β3* transcript with a 5′ UTR that is 870 nucleotides shorter and has a 7-fold greater translational efficiency than the normal *TGF-β3* mRNA (55).

Alternate Polyadenylation Sites. Multiple polyadenylation signals leading to the generation of several transcripts with differing 3′ UTR have been described for several mRNA species, such as the *RET* proto-oncogene (56), *ATM* gene (52), tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-3 (57), *RHOA* proto-oncogene (58), and calmodulin-I (59). Although the effect of these alternate 3′ UTRs on translation is not yet known, they may be important in RNA-protein interactions that affect translational recruitment. The role of these alterations in cancer development and progression is unknown.

Alterations in the Components of the Translation Machinery

Alterations in the components of translation machinery can take many forms.

Overexpresssion of eIF4E. Overexpression of eIF4E causes malignant transformation in rodent cells (60) and the deregulation of HeLa cell growth (61). Polunovsky *et al.* (62) found that eIF4E overexpression substitutes for serum and individual growth factors in preserving viability of fibroblasts, which suggests that eIF4E can mediate both proliferative and survival signaling.

Elevated levels of eIF4E mRNA have been found in a broad spectrum of transformed cell lines (63). eIF4E levels are elevated in all ductal carcinoma *in situ* specimens and invasive ductal carcinomas, compared with benign breast specimens evaluated with Western blot analysis (64, 65). Preliminary studies suggest that this overexpression is attributable to gene amplification (66).

There are accumulating data suggesting that eIF4E overexpression can be valuable as a prognostic marker. eIF4E overexpression was found in a retrospective study to be a marker of poor prognosis in stages I to III breast carcinoma (67). Verification of the prognostic value of eIF4E in breast cancer is now under way in a prospective trial (67). However, in a different study, eIF4E expression was correlated with the aggressive behavior of non-Hodgkin's lymphomas (68). In a prospective analysis of patients with head and neck cancer, elevated levels of eIF4E in histologically tumor-free surgical margins predicted a significantly increased risk of local-regional recurrence (9). These results all suggest that eIF4E overexpression can be used to select patients who might benefit from more aggressive systemic therapy. Furthermore, the head and neck cancer data suggest that eIF4E overexpression is a field defect and can be used to guide local therapy.

Alterations in Other Initiation Factors. Alterations in a number of other initiation factors have been associated with cancer. Overproduction of eIF4G, similar to eIF4E, leads to malignant transformation *in vitro* (69). eIF-2α is found in increased levels in bronchioloalveolar carcinomas of the lung (3). Initiation factor eIF-4A1 is overexpressed in melanoma (70) and hepatocellular carcinoma (71). The p40 subunit of translation initiation factor 3 is amplified and overexpressed in breast and prostate cancer (72), and the eIF3-p110 subunit is overexpressed in testicular seminoma (73). The role that overexpression of these initiation factors plays on the development and progression of cancer, if any, is not known.

Overexpression of S6K. S6K is amplified and highly overexpressed in the MCF7 breast cancer cell line, compared with normal mammary epithelium (74). In a study by Barlund *et al.* (74), S6K was amplified in 59 of 668 primary breast tumors, and a statistically significant association was observed between amplification and poor prognosis.

Overexpression of PAP. PAP catalyzes 3′ poly(A) synthesis. PAP is overexpressed in human cancer cells compared with normal and virally transformed cells (75). PAP enzymatic activity in breast tumors has been correlated with PAP protein levels (76) and, in mammary tumor cytosols, was found to be an independent factor for predicting survival (76). Little is known, however, about how PAP expression or activity affects the translational profile.

Alterations in RNA-binding Proteins. Even less is known about alterations in RNA packaging in cancer. Increased expression and nuclear localization of the RNA-binding protein YB-1 are indicators of a poor prognosis for breast cancer (77), non-small cell lung cancer (78), and ovarian cancer (79). However, this effect may be mediated at least in part at the level of transcription, because YB-1 increases chemoresistance by enhancing the transcription of a multidrug resistance gene (80).

Activation of Signal Transduction Pathways

Activation of signal transduction pathways by loss of tumor suppressor genes or overexpression of certain tyrosine kinases can contribute to the growth and aggressiveness of tumors. An important mutant in human cancers is the tumor suppressor gene *PTEN*, which leads to the activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway. Activation of PI3K and Akt induces the oncogenic transformation of chicken embryo fibroblasts. The transformed cells show constitutive phosphorylation of S6K and of 4E-BP1 (81). A mutant Akt that retains kinase activity but does not phosphorylate S6K or 4E-BP1 does not transform fibroblasts, which suggests a correlation between the oncogenicity of PI3K and Akt and the phosphorylation of S6K and 4E-BP1 (81).

Several tyrosine kinases such as platelet-derived growth factor, insulin-like growth factor, HER2/neu, and epidermal growth factor receptor are overexpressed in cancer. Because these kinases activate downstream signal transduction pathways known to alter translation initiation, activation of translation is likely to contribute to the growth and aggressiveness of these tumors. Furthermore, the mRNA for many of these kinases themselves are under translational control. For example, HER2/neu mRNA is translationally controlled both by a short upstream open reading frame that represses HER2/neu translation in a cell type-independent manner and by a distinct cell type-dependent mechanism that increases translational efficiency (82). HER2/neu translation is different in transformed and normal cells. Thus, it is possible that alterations at the translational level can in part account for the discrepancy between *HER2/neu* gene amplification detected by fluorescence *in situ* hybridization and protein levels detected by immunohistochemical assays.

Translation Targets of Selected Cancer Therapy

Components of the translation machinery and signal pathways involved in the activation of translation initiation represent good targets for cancer therapy.

Targeting the mTOR Signaling Pathway: Rapamycin and Tumstatin

Rapamycin inhibits the proliferation of lymphocytes. It was initially developed as an immunosuppressive drug for organ transplantation. Rapamycin with FKBP 12 (FK506-binding protein, M_r 12,000) binds to mTOR to inhibit its function.

Rapamycin causes a small but significant reduction in the initiation rate of protein synthesis (83). It blocks cell growth in part by blocking S6 phosphorylation and selectively suppressing the translation of 5′ TOP mRNAs, such as ribosomal proteins, and elongation factors (83–85). Rapamycin also blocks 4E-BP1 phosphorylation and inhibits cap-dependent but not cap-independent translation (17, 86).

The rapamycin-sensitive signal transduction pathway, activated during malignant transformation and cancer progression, is now being studied as a target for cancer therapy (87). Prostate, breast, small cell lung, glioblastoma, melanoma, and T-cell leukemia are among the cancer lines most sensitive to the rapamycin analogue CCI-779 (Wyeth-Ayerst Research; Ref. 87). In rhabdomyosarcoma cell lines, rapamycin is either cytostatic or cytocidal, depending on the p53 status of the cell; p53 wild-type cells treated with rapamycin arrest in the G_1 phase and maintain their viability, whereas p53 mutant cells accumulate in G_1 and undergo apoptosis (88, 89). In a recently reported study using human primitive neuroectodermal tumor and medulloblastoma models, rapamycin exhibited more cytotoxicity in combination with cisplatin and camptothecin than as a single agent. *In vivo*, CCI-779 delayed growth of xenografts by 160% after 1 week of therapy and 240% after 2 weeks. A single high-dose administration caused a 37% decrease in tumor volume. Growth inhibition *in vivo* was 1.3 times greater, with cisplatin in combination with CCI-779 than with cisplatin alone (90). Thus, preclinical studies suggest that rapamycin analogues are useful as single agents and in combination with chemotherapy.

Rapamycin analogues CCI-779 and RAD001 (Novartis, Basel, Switzerland) are now in clinical trials. Because of the known effect of rapamycin on lymphocyte proliferation, a potential problem with rapamycin analogues is immunosuppression. However, although prolonged immunosuppression can result from rapamycin and CCI-779 administered on continuous-dose schedules, the immunosuppressive effects of rapamycin analogues resolve in ~24 h after therapy (91). The principal toxicities of CCI-779 have included dermatological toxicity, myelosuppression, infection, mucositis, diarrhea, reversible elevations in liver function tests, hyperglycemia, hypokalemia, hypocalcemia, and depression (87, 92–94). Phase II trials of CCI-779 have been conducted in advanced renal cell carcinoma and in stage III/IV breast carcinoma patients who failed with prior chemotherapy. In the results reported in abstract form, although there were no complete responses, partial responses were documented in both renal cell carcinoma and in breast carcinoma (94, 95). Thus, CCI-779 has documented preliminary clinical activity in a previously treated, unselected patient population.

Active investigation is under way into patient selection for mTOR inhibitors. Several studies have found an enhanced efficacy of CCI-779 in PTEN-null tumors (30, 96). Another study found that six of eight breast cancer cell lines were responsive to CCI-779, although only two of these lines lacked PTEN (97) There was, however, a positive correlation between Akt activation and CCI-779 sensitivity (97). This correlation suggests that activation of the PI3K-Akt pathway,

regardless of whether it is attributable to a PTEN mutation or to overexpression of receptor tyrosine kinases, makes cancer cell amenable to mTOR-directed therapy. In contrast, lower levels of the target of mTOR, 4E-BP1, are associated with rapamycin resistance; thus, a lower 4E-BP1/eIF4E ratio may predict rapamycin resistance (98).

Another mode of activity for rapamycin and its analogues appears to be through inhibition of angiogenesis. This activity may be both through direct inhibition of endothelial cell proliferation as a result of mTOR inhibition in these cells or by inhibition of translation of such proangiogenic factors as vascular endothelial growth factor in tumor cells (99, 100).

The angiogenesis inhibitor tumstatin, another anticancer drug currently under study, was also found recently to inhibit translation in endothelial cells (101). Through a requisite interaction with integrin, tumstatin inhibits activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway and mTOR in endothelial cells and prevents dissociation of eIF4E from 4E-BP1, thereby inhibiting cap-dependent translation. These findings suggest that endothelial cells are especially sensitive to therapies targeting the mTOR-signaling pathway.

Targeting eIF2α: EPA, Clotrimazole, mda-7, and Flavonoids

EPA is an n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid found in the fish-based diets of populations having a low incidence of cancer (102). EPA inhibits the proliferation of cancer cells (103), as well as in animal models (104, 105). It blocks cell division by inhibiting translation initiation (105). EPA releases Ca^{2+} from intracellular stores while inhibiting their refilling, thereby activating PKR. PKR, in turn phosphorylates and inhibits eIF2α, resulting in the inhibition of protein synthesis at the level of translation initiation. Similarly, clotrimazole, a potent antiproliferative agent *in vitro* and *in vivo*, inhibits cell growth through depletion of Ca^{2+} stores, activation of PKR, and phosphorylation of eIF2α (106). Consequently, clotrimazole preferentially decreases the expression of cyclins A, E, and D1, resulting in blockage of the cell cycle in G_1.

mda-7 is a novel tumor suppressor gene being developed as a gene therapy agent. Adenoviral transfer of *mda-7* (Ad-mda7) induces apoptosis in many cancer cells including breast, colorectal, and lung cancer (107–109). Ad-mda7 also induces and activates PKR, which leads to phosphorylation of eIF2α and induction of apoptosis (110).

Flavonoids such as genistein and quercetin suppress tumor cell growth. All three mammalian eIF2α kinases, PKR, heme-regulated inhibitor, and PERK/PEK, are activated by flavonoids, with phosphorylation of eIF2α and inhibition of protein synthesis (111).

Targeting eIF4A and eIF4E: Antisense RNA and Peptides

Antisense expression of eIF4A decreases the proliferation rate of melanoma cells (112). Sequestration of eIF4E by overexpression of 4E-BP1 is proapoptotic and decreases tumorigenicity (113, 114). Reduction of eIF4E with antisense RNA decreases soft agar growth, increases tumor latency, and increases the rates of tumor doubling times (7). Antisense eIF4E RNA treatment also reduces the expression of angiogenic factors (115) and has been proposed as a potential adjuvant therapy for head and neck cancers, particularly when elevated eIF4E is found in surgical margins. Small molecule inhibitors that bind the eIF4G/4E-BP1-binding domain of eIF4E are proapoptotic (116) and are also being actively pursued.

Exploiting Selective Translation for Gene Therapy

A different therapeutic approach that takes advantage of the enhanced cap-dependent translation in cancer cells is the use of gene therapy vectors encoding suicide genes with highly structured 5′ UTR. These mRNA would thus be at a competitive disadvantage in normal cells and not translate well, whereas in cancer cells, they would translate more efficiently. For example, the introduction of the 5′ UTR of fibroblast growth factor-2 5′ to the coding sequence of *herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase* gene, allows for selective translation of *herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase* gene in breast cancer cell lines compared with normal mammary cell lines and results in selective sensitivity to ganciclovir (117).

Toward the Future

Translation is a crucial process in every cell. However, several alterations in translational control occur in cancer. Cancer cells appear to need an aberrantly activated translational state for survival, thus allowing the targeting of translation initiation with surprisingly low toxicity. Components of the translational machinery, such as eIF4E, and signal transduction pathways involved in translation initiation, such mTOR, represent promising targets for cancer therapy. Inhibitors of the mTOR have already shown some preliminary activity in clinical trials. It is possible that with the development of better predictive markers and better patient selection, response rates to single-agent therapy can be improved. Similar to other cytostatic agents, however, mTOR inhibitors are most likely to achieve clinical utility in combination therapy. In the interim, our increasing understanding of translation initiation and signal transduction pathways promise to lead to the identification of new therapeutic targets in the near future.

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